DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 260 463 CS 504 998

AUTHOR Parcells, Frank E., Ed.; Holdridge, Wm. E., Ed.
TITLE Journal of the Illinois Speech & Theatre Association, Volume 36, Number 3, 1984.
INSTITUTION Illinois Speech and Theatre Association.
PUB DATE 84
NOTE 67p.; Published once a year.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT Journal of the Illinois Speech & Theatre Association; v36 n3 1984

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Communication Skills; Interpersonal Communication; Public Relations; *Speech Communication; *Speech Curriculum; Teaching Methods; Television; Theater Arts
IDENTIFIERS Illinois; Small Group Communication

ABSTRACT

Intended for teachers of speech and theater, the material in this annual journal is divided into three parts: original research, instructional practices and materials, and Illinois issues. Titles and authors are as follows: (1) "A Study of the Predictive Validity of the Relational Control Paradigm" by Emil Bohn and Douglas G. Bock, (2) "Who Should Administer the Public Relations Program?" by Terry M. Perkins, (3) "Integrating Oral Communication Skills Across the Curriculum, K-6" by Pamela J. Cooper and Philip A. Gray, (4) "Theatre in the Television Production Course" by Glenn D. Novak, (5) "The Projected Outline: A Means to Extemporaneous Delivery" by Robert R. Quick, (6) "Interpersonal Communication in the Broadcast Curriculum: A Missing Link?" by Frank E. Parcells, (7) "Theory Follows Practice: A Reversal of the Norm in Teaching Small Group Communication" by Robert Gorg, and (8) "The Quality of Education in Illinois Elementary and Secondary Schools" by Phillip A. Gray. (EL)

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Number 3 — 1984

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A Journal of the Illinois Speech & Theatre Association

VOLUME XXXVI
1984, Number 3

CONTENTS

1. Original Research

A study of the Predictive Validity of the Relational Control Paradigm
Emil Bohn &
Douglas G. Bock 5

2. Instructional Practices and Materials

Who Should Administer the Public Relations Program?
Terry M. Perkins 15

Integrating Oral Communication Skills Across The Curriculum, K-6
Pamela J. Cooper &
Philip A. Gray 26

Theatre in the Television Production Course
Glenn D. Novak.....38

The Projected Outline: A Means to Extemporaneous Delivery
Robert R. Quick 44

Interpersonal Communication in the Broadcast Curriculum: A Missing Link?
Frank E. Parcells 47

Theory Follows Practice: A Reversal of the Norm in Teaching Small Group Communication
Robert Gorg 57

3. Illinois Issues

The Quality of Education in Illinois Elementary and Secondary Schools
Philip A. Gray 63

(36) No. 3 1984

Section

1

Original Research

(36) No. 3 1984

A Study of the Predictive Validity of the Relational Control Paradigm

Emil Bohn
Utah State University
Douglas G. Bock
Eastern Illinois University

WHENEVER two individuals communicate, the messages occur on two levels: content and relationship. It is impossible to relate to another individual only on a content basis because "relationships and content are inextricably bound together."[1] In every interaction both participants offer to each other definitions of their relationship, or more forcefully stated, each seeks to determine the nature of the relationship.[2] In addition to offering definitions, each responds with his/her definition of the relationship, which may confirm, reject, or modify that of the other.[3] This process is referred to as relational control.

The definition a person has is rarely called to his/her or the other's attention, but it is there nevertheless.[4] This process of defining relationships and responding to definitions is important because in an ongoing relationship the definition of the relationships cannot be left unresolved or fluctuating.[5]

Should the process not stabilize, the wide variations and unwieldiness plus the inefficiency of redefining the relationship with every exchange could lead to escalating conflict and perhaps dissolution of the dyadic relationship all together.

The term relational control comes from the clinically-based work of Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson.[6] It refers to the process of seeking and accepting control that occurs during dyadic interaction. The control process can be complementary (one-person accepts control), symmetrical (neither accepts control), or equal. In popular terms relational control deals with the issue of whether either member of a dyad is "one-up" (has control), "one-down" (accepts control), or "equal" in an interaction.[7]

According to Farace, Monge, and Russell the essential feature in relational control is that at least two sequential messages are considered, one from each member of the dyad. The communication behavior of one dyad member in response to the other must be noted before one can start to analyze the relationship. In other words, relational analysis depends on message sequences. Each time a person communicates, the response can be described in terms of the message preceding it as one-up (where the individual moves toward gaining or maintaining control), one-down (where the individual moves toward yielding control), and one-across (where an individual moves toward neutralizing control). Acceptance of the control by the other confirms the first person's definition, while rejection refutes this definition. As more and more transactions are reviewed, control patterns emerge that show whether one person is "putting down" the other, whether there is a balance of control, or whether one is attempting to define the relationship in a particular way that is not accepted by the other.[8]

Although the Rogers and Farace system has been utilized in a number of studies, no studies have been done to establish the predictive validity of the system. In other words, does the Rogers and Farace system accurately predict related psychological needs?

Since the relational control paradigm deals in the area of control, it should predict psychological control needs of an individual. Schutz has developed and validated an instrument for measuring an individual's control needs. Since these two are logically related, it was the general purpose of this study to test the predictive validity of the Rogers and Farace relational control paradigm using Schutz's FIRO-B.[9]

Conceptual and Operational Definitions

Rogers and Farace have developed procedures for coding and analyzing the relational aspect of dyadic interaction and see the primary goal of the coding scheme as obtaining a methodology for describing interactor patterns of communication exchange.[10] They accomplish this by using the two-message unit of analysis, combining the message control directions, and describing the transactional types that occur in an interaction. Courtright, Millar, and Rogers-Millar provide an excellent summary of Rogers and Farace's relational control coding system.[11]

Using Rogers and Farace's coding scheme it is possible to obtain a static description of relational communication patterns. This is done through the nonsequential tabulation of symmetry, complementarity, and transitory transactional types and their subcategories. This static description of patterns allows for predictions of the relational control in the dyad. For example, a predominance of

complementarity transactional types would suggest that the definition of the relationship offered by one is being accepted by the other — the two members of the dyad are "getting along."

Schutz explains and analyzes behavior in terms of orientations toward others.[12] He holds that every person orients himself/herself toward others in certain characteristic patterns, which can be explained in terms of three interpersonal needs: inclusion, affection and control.[13] The satisfaction of these three needs can be facilitated or interfered with when two or more people interact.[14] When two or more persons mutually satisfy each other's needs, they are compatible. They are incompatible when their needs are not satisfied or when the interaction process interferes with the satisfaction of their needs.[15]

The interpersonal compatibility between two persons can be measured using an instrument developed by William Schutz known as FIRO-B. The instrument is composed of six separate scales, which index an individual's report of the behavior he/she expresses toward others and of the behavior he/she wants others to express toward him/her in each of the three need areas: inclusion, affection, and control. When the instrument is scored, six values are obtained for each member of a dyad. These six values are combined mathematically to produce nine measures of interpersonal compatibility along the dimensions of interchange, originator, and reciprocal and a tenth measure of total compatibility.[16]

The instrument can be used to construct compatible and incompatible dyads and then predict behavior of the dyad members based on compatibility or incompatibility of dyad members. FIRO compatibility does not necessarily imply that dyad members like one another, although it is probable that liking and compatibility are often linked.

With Schutz's instrument providing information about control needs at the psychological level (prior to any interaction taking place) and the Rogers and Farace coding system providing control data at the behavioral level (after the interaction has taken place), the specific purpose of this study was to further test the relational control paradigm using behaviors to predict psychological needs in the need area of control.

Control. According to Schutz, control refers to the decision-making process between people. The need for control varies from the need to dominate others and to have power and authority over them, to the need to be controlled.

In relational control terminology, some individuals have the need to assert definitional rights, gain control of an exchange, while others have the need to request or accept the other's definition of the relationship, yielding control by seeking or accepting control of the other.

Originator Compatibility. Originator compatibility is derived from the originator-receiver dimension of interaction. In general two persons are compatible to the degree that the expression of inclusion, affection, or control corresponds to that which the other person wishes to receive in each need area. For control, an originator has a preference for always dominating and controlling the actions of others and strongly resisting their influence. A receiver has a preference for always being influenced and never being influential. Originator control compatibility occurs when those who wish to dominate and control the activities of others work with those who want to be controlled.

Corresponding categories in Rogers and Farace's relational control coding system would be the two forms of complementarity and two forms of transition: one-down/one-across and one-across/one-down. In complementary transactions, the interactor's behaviors are fully differential, and the definition of the relationship offered by one is accepted by the other. In the two forms of transition, the one-across message appears to be a low level assertion of relational control.[17] In both forms of transition, instead of submitting to an assertion of definition, a less demanding, but not accepting response is transmitted.

Originator Incompatibility. Originator incompatibility is also derived from the originator-receiver dimension of interaction. Competitive incompatibility occurs between two originators and apathetic incompatibility occurs between two receivers. More specifically, competitive incompatibility occurs between two persons each of whom wants to be dominate and run activities, but does not want to be told what to do. Apathetic incompatibility occurs between two submissive individuals, each of whom wants to be told what to do, but neither of whom will take the initiative to do it.

The corresponding categories in Rogers and Farace's system would be the three forms of symmetry and two forms of transition (one-up/one-across and one-across/one-up). A symmetrical transaction occurs when one interactor behaves toward the other as the other behaves toward him; thus there is a similarity of definition by the two individuals. Symmetrical transactions can be competitive, submissive, or neutralized.

Competitive symmetry corresponds to competitive incompatibility as each person is attempting to control the interaction. The two forms of transaction also correspond to competitive incompatibility because the one-across transaction appears to function as an attempt to curb the assertion of control.[18] Instead of directly challenging the assertion of definition by the other, a less demanding, but not accepting response is transmitted.

Submissive symmetry corresponds to apathetic incompatibility as each person moves toward yielding control by seeking control of the other. Neutralized symmetry also corresponds to apathetic incompatibility. With neutralized symmetry, one-across messages seem to indicate an avoidance of definitional rights. Instead of directly yielding control by seeking or accepting control of the other, both individuals avoid trying to define the relationship.

Based on the relational control research, it seems reasonable to expect that transitory exchanges will predict compatibility-incompatibility. In the Millar and Rogers research transitory units accounted for almost 60% of the transactions.[19] The complementary forms would therefore occur in the one-down/one-across (↓ →) and one-across/one-down (→ ↓) relationships.

The next most frequent forms of communication were symmetrical in nature, involving 30% of the total. The largest proportion here included the category of neutralized symmetry — one-across/one-across (⇉). Filling out the percentages here were the competitive symmetry — one-up/one-up (↑↑) and submissive symmetry — one-down/one-down (↓↓).

These five categories then seem to be the most likely to predict the Shutz categories of compatible, competitive incompatible and apathetic incompatible.

Hpothesis. Therefore based on the above research and logic the hypothesis

for this investigation was that the *transactional types one-down/one-across (↓ →), one-across/one-down (→ ↓), one-across/one-across (⇉), one-up/one-up (↑ ↑), and one-down/one-down (↓ ↓) will predict membership in the FIRO-B categories of compatible, competitive incompatible, and apathetic incompatible.*

Subjects. The subjects for this study came from two pools. The first pool consisted of fifty undergraduates enrolled in a communication course required by the School of Business. All fifty subjects were majors in the School of Business and ranged in academic standing from first-quarter freshmen to last-quarter seniors.

The second pool consisted of twenty-six undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in an upper division communication course required by the Department of Communication. Almost all these subjects were communication majors.

Compatibility-Incompatibility. The control section of the FIRO-B questionnaire was administered to all subjects. Each FIRO-B questionnaire was scored to obtain the necessary data — the scale scores (the number of items accepted for each of the two scales ranging from 0 to 9). Based on the scale scores, each subject's name was placed into one of three categories: 1) need to control, 2) need to be controlled, and 3) no predominant need.

Subjects placed in the "need to control" category were those with higher expressed scores than wanted scores. A subject was placed in the "need to be controlled" category when the wanted scores were higher than the expressed scores. In both cases, the difference between the wanted and expressed scores had to be at least three points. Those subjects with wanted and expressed scores less than three points apart were placed in the "no predominant need" category.

Compatible dyads were formed by randomly matching "need to control" category subjects with "need to be controlled" category subjects. Apathetic incompatible dyads were formed by randomly matching "need to be controlled" category subjects. Competitive incompatible groups were formed by randomly matching "need to control" category subjects. Random matching was carried out separately for each subject pool.

The final step in gathering the compatibility data was to subject the scale scores from each of the twenty-two dyads to Schutz's mathematical formula for originator compatibility/incompatibility. This was done to insure that all dyads were in the category that their scale scores indicates they should be in. In all cases the dyads were found to be in the correct categories.

Relational Control. Once the compatibility data had been gathered, the next requirement was coding of each dyad's interactions using Rogers and Farace's relational control coding system. In order to insure that each dyad's interactions centered around the same task, the members of the twenty-two dyads were asked to imagine themselves in the following situation:

> Imagine that you are employed by a company that produces and markets survival equipment. You and a fellow employee have been given the task of determining what items are essential for survival in the open sea. You must work together and reach agreement on the items.

After the situation was explained, each dyad was given two copies of the Lost at Sea Worksheet.[20] The members then were asked to work as a pair and determine which of the listed items were most important. While the dyads worked on the problem, the interactions of each dyad were audio taped.

The audio tape for each dyad was transcribed and transcripts coded by trained coders (reliability among the four coders was .86) using Rogers and Farace's relational control coding system. Once the coding had been completed, the total number of paired messages falling into each of Rogers and Farace's nine transactional types was computed for each dyad. The total number of transactions analyzed was 1755.

Statistical Design. The statistical procedure selected to test the hypothesis was Multiple Discriminant Analysis.[21] The discriminant function analysis used the number of paired messages in each of the nine transactional types (independent variable) to predict dyad membership in one of the three categories of dyads classified as compatible, competitive incompatible, apathetic incompatible (dependent variable). This analysis indicated which combination of the nine transactional types was a predictor of category membership.

Results

The discriminant analysis was performed on each of the subject pools independently. The results of the analysis on the first subject pool revealed that five

Table 1

Analysis 1

Actual Group	No. of Cases	Predicted Group 1*	Group Group 2*	Membership Group 3*
Group 1*	4	4	0	0
		100%	0.0%	0.0%
Group 2*	4	0	4	0
		0.0%	100%	0.0%
Group 3*	4	0	0	4
		0.0%	0.0%	100%

Predicator variables (in order of contribution) — UU, DD, AD, DA, AA

*Group 1 — FIRO Compatible
*Group 2 — FIRO Apathetic Incompatible
*Group 3 — FIRO Competitive Incompatible

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation
1	16.99014	0.972
Wilk's Lambda	Chi-Square	Sig.
0.0395	22.625	0.012

of Rogers and Farace's nine transactional types correctly predicted dyad category membership with one hundred percent accuracy.
The five transactional types were: 1) one-down/one-across (↓ →), 2) one-across/one-down (→ ↓), 3) one-across/one-across (⇉), 4) one-up/one-up (↑ ↑), 5) one-down/one-down (↓ ↓). The canonical correlation on this first analysis was 0.972. The square of the canonical correlation was 0.944; the amount of variance shared by the five transactional types and the three FIRO categories was 94%.

The results of the analysis on the second subject pool revealed that three of Rogers and Farace's nine transactional types correctly predicted dyad category membership with one hundred percent accuracy.

Table 2

Analysis 2

Actual Group	No. of Cases	Predicted Group 1*	Group Group 2*	Membership Group 3*
Group 1*	3	3	0	0
		100%	0.0%	0.0%
Group 2*	3	0	3	0
		0.0%	100%	0.0%
Group 3*	1	0	0	1
		0.0%	0.0%	100%

Predicator variables (in order of contribution) — UU, AD, UA

*Group 1 — FIRO Compatible
*Group 2 — FIRO Apathetic Incompatible
*Group 3 — FIRO Competitive Incompatible

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation
1	12.99146	.964
Wilk's Lambda	Chi-Square	Sig.
.0373	9.967	.130

The three transactional types were: 1) one-up/one-up (↑ ↑), 2) one-across/one-down (→ ↓), and 3) one-up/one-across (↑ →). The canonical correlation on the second analysis was .964. The square of the canonical correlation was .929; the amount of variance shared by the three transactional types and the FIRO-B catetories was 92.9%.

Discussion

The results of the analysis of the first subject pool confirm the hypothesis of this study. It now appears that the transitory units DA and AD, the neutral-

ized symmetry unit AA, the competitive symmetry unit UU, and the submissive symmetry unit DD do predict control needs with an exceptional degree of accuracy.

The results of the analysis of the second subject pool are not as clear in their support of the hypothesis, however. The 100% accuracy still appeared, but the predictors were the UU, AD, UA combination. The UU and AD combinations were predicted by the hypothesis, but the transitory unit UA replaced the other transitory units DA and AD.

This finding offers some support for the relational control paradigm. First, a transitory unit still appeared in the analysis. Second, the type of dyad studied may have influenced the results. Millar and Rogers studied marital dyads where the one-across (→) transaction was an accepted method of curbing the assertion of control by the other member. In the present study, short history dyads composed of communication majors were studied and directly challenging (↑) the assertion of control was accepted. The one-across transaction, a less demanding, but not accepting response, may have been seen by marital dyads as a way to keep the dyad intact. The direct challenge (↑) of assertion may have been accepted by short history dyad because a task had to be completed and there was no concern about long term dyad stability.

Conclusions

These analyses taken together add some support to the predictive validity of the Rogers and Farace paradigm. We now have knowledge of how the behaviors of relational control predict control needs in individuals. Even in the case of the second analysis the transitory nature of the new predictor falls within the scope of the paradigm and its present state of predictability.

These findings should also modify research approaches to relational control. Findings may be dyad situation-specific, for instance. The differences between short and long term dyads need to be investigated. More research should be focused on the transitory and symmetrical exchanges in determining relational control. Apparently, complementary exchanges are not predictive. Indeed, Millar and Rogers reported that complementary transactions made up only a little more than 10% of the total transactions.

Overall, the relational control paradigm validity now has some moderate support. These analyses may cause some modification in approaches to interaction sequences; but the empirical connection between the behavior of relational control and the psychological need for control has been established. By using a behavior to predict the psychological state, the connection is even stronger. Psychological states are even more difficult to predict than behaviors due to the lack of observability. This finding will undoubtedly provide an important theoretical link in the paradigm.

ENDNOTES

[1] W. W. Wilmot, *Dyadic Communication: A Transactual Perspective*, (Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley, 1975). p. 97.

[2] Paul Watzlawick, Janet Helmick Beavin, and Don D. Jackson, *Pragmatics of Human Com-*

munication, (New York: W. W. Norton, 1967), pp. 132-133.

[3] Watzlawick, p. 133.

[4] Wilmot, p. 97.

[5] Watzlawick, p. 133.

[6] Watzlawick.

[7] Richard V. Farace, Peter P. Monge, and Hamish M. Russel, *Communicating and Organizing*, (Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley, 1977), p. 131.

[8] Farace, p. 136.

[9] W. C. Schutz, *The Interpersonal Underworld*, (Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, 1966), pp. 57-80.

[10] L. Edna Rogers and Richard V. Farace, "Analysis of Relational Communication in Dyads: New Measurement Procedures," *Human Communication Research*, 3 (1975), p. 233.

[11] John A. Courtright, Frank E. Millar, and L. Edna Rogers-Millar, "Domineering and Dominance: Replication and Expansion," *Communication Monographs*, 3 (1979), p. 180.

[12] Schutz, pp. 106-119.

[13] *Inclusion* refers to the need for togetherness, the need to associate with others. This need manifests itself through behaviors designed to attract the attention and interest of others. *Control* refers to the decision-making process between people. The need for control varies from the need to dominate others and to have power and authority over them, to the need to be controlled. *Affection* refers to close personal and emotional feelings between two individuals. Its extremes are represented by love and hate.

[14] M. E. Shaw, *Group Dynamics* (New York: McGraw-Hill , 1972), p. 206.

[15] Shaw, p. 206.

[16] *Interchange compatibility* is based upon the mutual expression of inclusion, affection, or control. Some persons prefer a great deal of exchange of behavior relevant to the need area under consideration, whereas others prefer neither to receive or send inclusion, affection, or control. Interchange compatibility exists when two persons interacting are similar with respect to the amount of exchange desired; incompatibility results from dissimilarity in this respect. *Originator compatibility* derives from the originator-receiver dimension of interaction. In general, two persons are compatible to the degree that the expression of inclusion, affection, or control corresponds to that which the other person wishes to receive in each need area. *Reciprocal compatibility* reflects the degree to which two persons reciprocally satisfy each other's behavior preferences. If one member of a dyad is frustrated because the other does not satisfy his/her needs or if he/she cannot express his/her preferred behavior toward the other, the dyad will be compatible. *Total compatibility* is the mathematical summation of control area compatibility, inclusion area compatibility, and affection area compatibility. These definitions were adapted from Schutz, 1966.

[17] Frank E. Millar and L. Edna Rogers, "A Relational Approach to Interpersonal Communication," in Gerald R. Miller, *Explorations in Interpersonal Communication*, (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1976), p. 102.

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[19] Millar, p. 98.

[20] John E. Jones and J. William Pfeffer, *The 1975 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators*, (LaJolla, CA: University Associates Publishers, 1975), p. 140.

[21] Norman H. Nie, et al., *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*, 2nd Ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), pp. 434-462.

(36) No. 3 1984

Section

2

Instructional Practices and Materials

(36) No. 3 1984

Who Should Administer the Public Relations Program?

Terry M. Perkins
Eastern Illinois University

WHEN discussing public relations education, two very important questions need to be addressed: First, what should be the curriculum of a public relations program and, second, how should such a program be administered?

Over the past thirteen years, this first question has been liberally discussed and has resulted in a general consensus. Most educators and practitioners agree that public relations specialists should be well groomed in both print and electronic media, oral and written communication; have a knowledge of business principles; be trained in the social sciences and survey research; have a broad background in literature and the humanities; and develop an area of specialty depending on specific career interests. There is little doubt that public relations education is viewed as requiring an interdisciplinary approach.

This interdisciplinary focus is noted both in the results of surveys and the remarks of public relations specialists. Walker's "End-of-decade Survey" reveals that the area of public relations has expanded throughout the last decade.[1] In the early 70s public relations was taught as a print media field, today it includes oral and interpersonal communication, training in electronic media, and the social and behavioral

sciences. Walker believes that public relations education needs to be identified even more strongly as an interdisciplinary field.

Nager points out that mass media and interpersonal communication must be integrated with traditional public relations.[2] He emphasizes the importance of research suggesting that, "the technological pressures on public relations education to equip students with the foundations for computerized information systems, word processing, and data-based research and evaluation will extend considerably beyond the limited one course undergraduate research course in many programs."[3] Greyser echoes this perspective emphasizing the importance of liberal arts, social science research methods, and business administration training.[4]

Public relations education is still growing. There is a constant need for reassessment and revision. However, the field seems to be moving in a healthy direction by advocating a broad, interdisciplinary approach to public relations training in higher education.

Beyond this general agreement on the breadth of public relations education there seems to be little consensus as to how, and by whom public relations programs should be run. Traditionally, journalism has dominated public relations education. But, there is clear evidence of dissatisfaction with a journalistic approach to the administration of these programs. This is marked by a trend away from journalism as the "home" department of public relations toward speech communication, business and an increasing demand for independent programs.[5]

Lindsay remarked that

> The greatest need is for a molding of resources university-wide, but particularly in schools of journalism, schools of business administration and departments of speech communication. Where administration responsibility for such programs will rest depends on the degrees of initiative exercised by the three units. At present initiative is with schools of journalism and mass communication. But increasingly the other two areas are becoming involved. It is imperative that the resulting territorial scrambles not lessen the effectiveness of institutional efforts.[6]

Two important points need to be emphasized from Lindsay's thoughts. First, journalism, nor any academic unit, does not have an inherent or inevitable claim to public relations education. Second, in the ensuing scramble for control of public relations education, the ultimate objective of developing a course of study best meeting the needs and career aspirations of the public relations student must not be lost.

Because of the phenomenal growth of public relations education during the past decade, many schools are confronted with the problem of reconciling the divergent interests of several departments when developing and administering such a program. The process of designing such a program is often complicated and may create intense competitive rivalries between academic units. This is particularly true when each unit feels perfectly justified in taking control. In order to avoid serious schisms among university departments, an examination of the

justifications for placing administrative control in the hands of one department or another is in order.

Protagnoists favor journalism, business, speech and housing public relations as a separate entity. This paper proposes to make the case for a speech communication home for the public relations program. However, the dialogue should not stop here since only through the free exchance of ideas can the needs of public relations education be best served. Space alone dictates that only a portion of the dialogue be presented here.

Since journalism remains the major administrative unit controlling public relations programs, it seems reasonable to start by examining their claims to sovereignty. The claims of speech communication, or any other unit for that matter, must be judged against the validity of journalisms' case.

The purposes of this paper are to: 1) examine the rationale for placing public relations education in the hands of journalism; 2) argue that, given the current state of the profession, journalism is not the most suitable administrative agency; and, 3)propose that the most suitable alternative to journalism is the department of speech communication.

The Case For Journalism

The rationale for placing administrative control in the hands of journalism is ably expressed by Clavier in an *ACA Bulletin* article.[6] He advances four arguments: (1) tradition, (2) professional associations and organizations, (3) essential skills, and (4) resources. Two minor "misunderstandings" which need clarification are addressed: the relationship between journalists and public relations practitioners and the scope of public relations training within a school of journalism.

Tradition. First, Clavier argues that journalism is the traditional home for public relations practitioners. Originally, the practice of public relations was essentially a publicity function carried on with and through newspapers. As the electronic mass media (radio, TV, and film) became more important, schools of journalism developed the most comprehensive mass communication programs. Accordingly, most public relations practitioners emerged with journalism backgrounds.

Because journalism has been the traditional home for public relations education does not mean it should continue that way. Several changes over the past decade indicate a shift away from journalism as the home department for public relations education. For the first time journalism departments account for less than half of all public relations programs.[8] A study by Kalupa and Allen indicates that nearly 52 percent of the public relations respondents believe current public relations training is "too journalistic."[9]

This dissatisfaction is reflected in both criticism of course work and staffing. Measell notes that public relations curriculums in journalism departments tend to be an afterthought.[10] Typically, students are subjected to a series of courses in journalism and then in their last two years are introduced to the fundamentals of public relations. Smith's 1981 Report to the Commission on Public Relations Education stresses that public relations educators are concerned about the overabundance of journalism instructors with insufficient qualifica-

tions and/or desire to teach public relations courses.[11] This criticism suggests a fundamental difference in the attitudes and approaches that journalists and public relations specialists bring to their work.

This emphasis often leads schools of journalism to develop public relations course work without looking beyond the print media. A case in point is the Fundamentals of Public Relations course taught at Eastern Illinois University where a journalism instructor designed a course in public relations with 13 weeks on the "role of journalism" and two weeks on the "role of speech communication and mass media." Tiemens quotes a television news editor as saying that too many journalism departments have their heads in the sand, ignoring electronic media, reflecting a strong prejudice against the "electronic boys."[12] It is this type of prejudice which public relations practitioners and educators find so distressing.

Clavier claims that schools of journalism have developed the most comprehensive mass media programs. Facts simply do not support this contention. Niven provides a list of 206 four-year institutions offering an undergraduate degree in broadcasting.[13] About 32 percent of these media programs were associated with speech communication departments, 30 percent are located in communication departments, 30 percent in independent broadcast departments, and only 8 percent were associated with journalism. Although these figures were compiled in 1975 and there may well be some shifts, journalism cannot be claimed as the department offering the most comprehensive mass media programs. In fact, these figures seem to point to speech communication as the predominant force for broadcast education.

Professional Associations. The second argument for journalisms control of public relations education is that the major professional and academic associations for public relations are closely aligned with journalism: the *Association for Education in Journalism (AEJ)* and the *Public Relations Society of America (PRSA)*. In fact, the *American Council on Education in Journalism (ACEJ)* is the accepted accrediting agency for public relations programs.

Journalism is a *profession* with professional associations. This professionalism may not serve the best interests of public relations education, Tiemens notes that this tradition of "professionalism" has significantly affected the educational objectives of journalism.[14] There is a tendency among journalists to recognize print media as the only viable journalistic form. Many journalists resist any association with electronic media for fear it will contaminate the study of "pure" journalism. Measell, and Kalupa and Bateman report that 320 colleges and universities offer course work in public relations with 117 offering major sequences.[15] Of these programs, only 18 were accredited by the ACEJ in 1980. Public relations teachers report resistance to ACEJ standards because they are "too journalistic." Further, many disapprove of the fact that, as of 1980, the ACEJ accrediting committee did not include a single person with public relations experience.[16] True, today the ACEJ accrediting committee does have a public relations specialist sitting on the committee. But has there been an active exchange of ideas or has "journalistic thinking" dominated curriculum development? Why do so many public relations practitioners seek independent programs?

Although many public relations practitioners and educators come from a journalism background, it is precisely this "journalistic" background that is the basis for perpetuating a very limited public relations perspective. Programs are designed to meet journalistic standards. Students are grounded in journalistic practices. It is this emphasis on journalistic philosophy and objectives that troubles the public relations practitioner and educator.

Third, Clavier cites a survey conducted by Allen and Kalupa which indicates that journalistic skills training is at the core of journalism public relations programs. The study points out the need for many other communication skills such as organizational communication, interpersonal communication, public speaking, broadcasting, marketing, and research. However, Clavier claims that practitioners in the field repeatedly report journalistic skills as most important.

It seems only reasonable that a journalism-dominated program would place journalistic skills at its core. An important question is whether or not such skills belong at the core of public relations training. Clavier's claim is confused by the fact that a report by Kalupa and Allen provides no such support.[17] The majority of the respondents in this study found public relations education "too journalistic," with nearly 70 percent agreeing that newspaper training would not be particularly important in the future. The overall flavor of the study seems to be that while basic journalism skills are important, they do not represent the core of a sound public relations program.

Plank criticizes the writing skills of public relations graduates. Writing is a basic requirement for employment but exactly what kind of writing is required? Public relations writing requires more than just newswriting skills and more than the traditional newspaper experience. What is needed is training in *persuasive* writing and presentation of material to management, involving research, problem analysis, and strategic development.[18] Fairman agrees, saying, "many who can write publicity aren't much good at handling abstract ideas — a skill that is necessary in speech writing, reports and much of the non-publicity writing chores that must be done."[19]

Journalistic writing skills are not enough to insure success in the public relations profession. News editing, writing, and the preparation of publications will continue to play a major role in public relations. However, functions such as organizing meetings and special events, preparing speeches, and being interviewed as a company spokesman are shifting public relations away from a journalistic base toward a base of broader communication education.[20]

Journalisms' control of curriculum, staff and professional organizations will undoubtedly lead toward an emphasis of what *they* believe essential, news editing and writing. This influence may serve to ill prepare the public relations graduate by denying training in a wider range of communication skills so important for success.

Resources. Clavier's fourth advantage is the accessibility of resources provided to journalism because of their professional school status. He notes that there is less competition for resources in professional schools, such as journalism, than in schools of arts and sciences.

This argument is difficult to deal with as it is difficult to generalize from school to school. The financial and administrative considerations of various

schools will depend on the willingness of university administrations to support expanding programs in the face of shrinking aid. The ease with which any program acquires resources will depend on the financial and political structure of the institution. However, there is no reason to believe that the need for resources would be inordinately great since most new public relations programs can utilize courses and facilities already in existence.

But do other academic units have word processing and other computer equipment? In fact, yes; business departments often have word processors and computers. However, to ask such a question is to forget the nature of an interdisciplinary program. An interdisciplinary program is intended to share resources thereby reducing the resource demands on any one academic unit. The question here is not who owns the equipment but which professional perspective best serves the needs of the public relations student.

Misunderstandings. Clavier completes his case for journalisms' control of public relations programs with two issues. These issues may, in fact, be the most important reasons why journalism should not administer a public relations program. The first misunderstanding is the presumed antagonism between journalists and public relations specialists, and the second is the notion that journalism provides two narrow a framework upon which to build a public relations curriculum. These two issues are related and can be treated as one. Both problems emerge from the basic philosophical perspective of journalism as a profession.

Are these issues simply "misunderstandings" that can be easily explained away or do they represent deep seated and inherent prejudices which make journalism an unsuitable administrator of public relations education? This review has consistently revealed journalists have a bias against public relations. This is reflected in the curriculum and staffing decisions made by schools of journalism and reinforced by the lack of representation by public relations specialists on important professional organizations, especially the ACEJ accrediting committee. Schools of journalism seek to train the objective and thorough interpretative and/or investigative reporter.[21] Providing objective and reliable information is the cornerstone of the profession. The primary objective of the public relations specialist is persuasion. Trent and Trent believe the essence of public relations "is strategic two-way communication specifically designed to reinforce and/or modify public opinion on a particular issue, person, product, or idea."[22] A review of the most prominent public relations educators (Cutlip and Center, Bernays, Nolte, Marston, Newsom and Scott, and Simon) finds a consistent definition of public relations which focuses on the persuasive and two-way responsibilities of the practitioner.[23] Two themes run throughout all these definitions of public relations. First, the public relations practitioner is a communications specialist, and second, the public relations practitioner must make use of persuasion.[24]

Because of the professional emphasis that journalists place on objective reporting, there is little wonder that they have difficulty understanding the value and place of persuasion as the focal point of a free society and the practice of public relations. Journalism trains its students to be journalists. This orientation will have considerable influence on the goals and objectives of journalism and, ultimately, on any program they administer. The objective, factual report-

age of a journalist is an inadequate and stultifying orientation for the public relations practitioner. The differences between the goals of a journalist and a public relations specialist may create not only considerable antagonism between them, but also considerable guilt in the journalist who accepts a public relations assignment.

Bateman is "disappointed that public relations programs are dominated by faculty members and administrators who have a strong bias in favor of journalism, and who seem to look down on public relations education and practice."[25] Cutlip and Center indicate that "the calling has sustained and survived considerable direct scorn. An editor tells his readers, 'If you want to get plausible disguises for unworthy causes, hire a public relations expert.' A columnist speaks of the 'perversion of the language by public relations . . . an accepted form of lying to the public in order to manipulate it as the promoters wish.' A newspaper labels public relations 'a parasite of the press."[26] The general reaction of the Washington press corp toward a "journalist" who accepts a position as a press secretary is one of mild contempt. That person is no longer considered a reliable source because his loyalty is no longer to the "truth" but to his employer.[27] Thus, his word is distorted and biased. The central function of a public relations practitioner, persuasion, is not considered appropriate for a journalist.[28]

Jackson indicates that "journalistic skills are useful for a portion of the job, but journalistic thinking is not. The notion that blindly disseminated information will have an effect in the court of public opinion is discredited everywhere, . . . Emotion is what moves people not facts."[29] Journalistic thinking cannot help but influence the curriculum choices and professional attitudes of instructors. Even though students may be encouraged to take a variety of courses outside journalism, the underlying philosophy of the major may not be displaced. These attitudes are too deeply seated. It seems unlikely that a journalist can bridge the gap between objectivity and persuasion.

Why try to modify journalisms' philosophy when speech communication specialists already understand the role of advocacy in society? Public relations is a communication vocation and speech communication already has a body of research, theory, and practice upon which to build an effective public relations program.

The philosophical differences between journalism and public relations are far too serious to dismiss lightly. The conflict between journalists and public relations practitioners is inherent in their perceptions of their professions. This antagonism might be overcome in time. However, there seems to be little need for such a cumbersome task when speech communication both shares and understands the purpose of public relations.

The Case For Speech Communication

The foregoing discussion illustrates the trends and problems of public relations education. Public relations educators and practitioners feel that public relations training is "too journalistic." There is dissatisfaction with curriculum, staffing and guidance provided by the professional organizations. Most troubling is the philosophical differences which compound these problems.

Public relations educators and practitioners demand a change. Now is the

time for speech communication to put forth its case as forcefully as possible. The rationale for speech communication departments assuming administrative control is expressed in three principles:

1. The goals and objectives of public relations practitioners, such as strategic two-way communication, are clearly compatible with the existing perspective in speech communication.

The public relations specialist is concerned with internal and external communication; with interpersonal, small group, public and mass communication; with print and electronic media. In the broadest sense, public relations is a communications discipline. The breadth and depth of communication skill, theory, and research needed can easily by gained from close association with the field of speech communication.

Many speech communication programs are combined with electronic media programs. The field of speech communication has developed theory and research in interpersonal communication, small group communication, public speaking, organizational communication, and intercultural communication. All of the above represent essential skills for the public relations specialist.

Where the journalist is concerned with reporting the facts, the public relations practitioner is concerned with interpreting and explaining the facts. The public relations specialist and the speech communication professional both recognize that *facts* seldom stand alone. They are subject to interpretation and misinterpretation. The job of the public relations practitioner is to place *the facts* in context; to explain their significance and meaning; to act as a mediator between conflicting perceptions. This is where a grounding in speech communication may well serve the public relations specialist.

2. The need for social-scientific and behavioral theory research can easily be met by departments of speech communication. Bernays advocates the need for a social-science viewpoint within public relations; a perspective which is growing in the profession.[10]

Speech education in the U.S. has a longer history than journalism education; consequently, speech communication is "ahead" of journalism in the emphasis and development of theory and research. Brooks points out that speech has traditionally emphasized skills on the secondary level, theory on the undergraduate level, and research on the graduate level. Journalism has a more symmetrical pattern of emphasis with skill development across all levels of education,[11]. Even though journalism is a rapidly changing emphasis, it will take time to develop the theory and research which the public relations specialist needs *now*.

Speech communication has a longer history of social-scientific and behavioral research. It can provide a body of theory and the necessary research skills which the public relations specialist needs, now. The advantage of speech communication providing this background is that it can provide both, while sharing research courses with other departments would impose an artificial separation between theory and research which is simply unnecessary.

3. Many mass media programs are closely aligned with speech commu-

nication departments or communications departments comprised of speech communication, mass media, and, sometimes, journalism.

Tiemens points out that, "broadcast education belongs within a context of *communication* or, at least, mass communication."[32] This is born out by the large number of programs throughout the nation that combine speech communication, broadcasting, and journalism. The programs can only benefit by close association with each other.

Public relations must also be placed within a context of *communication*. Given its interdisciplinary nature, association with speech communication, broadcasting, journalism, business, and a host of other disciplines is essential. Most important is the question of philosophy. What disciplinary association can best prepare the public relations practitioner, in attitude, theory, and skill for his profession?

Speech communication departments can better meet the needs of public relations education than journalism. Speech communication is not encumbered by the prejudices of journalism and can provide a broader grounding in communication theory and practice. This is not to say that journalistic skills are not an important part of the training process, but it is important that journalistic skills be emphasized over "journalistic thinking."

Walker writes, "this trend of preparing public relations students as skilled communicators trained in persuasive techniques might have the added advantage of making those students who cannot be absorbed by the needs of the practice more marketable for other fields." However, those of us in speech communication must carefully examine our motives in advocating a shift in administrative control for public relations education. Is the drive to capture public relations programs merely an attempt to reverse sagging enrollments? Is this merely a competitive drive pitting speech communication against journalism in search for new students? There is no denying that such a motivation may be the impetus for some, but if the public relations program is truly interdisciplinary and encourages students to pursue the course of study which best meets their professional needs, then speech communication will get its fair share of students regardless of who administers the program.

Conclusion

The fundamental question is what professional perspective best prepares the student for a career in public relations: the rhetorical perspective or the journalistic perspective? The fear that the administrators of a program would exclude course work and training vital to the preparation of a professional is unwarranted as long as they are motivated by what is best for the student and not interdepartmental rivalries.

The opportunity for speech communication exists. Now the speech communication discipline must react by taking the initiative focusing on public relations as part of its domain.

ENDNOTES

[32] Albert Walker, "End-of-decade Survey Shows Academic Growth in Public Relations," *Public Relations Review*, 8, No. 2 (1982), pp. 46-60.

[2] Walker, p. 58.

[3] Walker, pp. 58-59.

[4] Stephen A. Greyser, "Changing Roles for Practitioners," *Public Relations Journal*, 27, No. 1 (1981), pp. 18-19 and pp. 22-25.

[5] Walker, p. 52; what is not clear is the composition of the communication departments. Are they combination print and electronic, or speech communication and media?

[6] Janet Dyer, "Public Relations Education: Two Surveys," *Public Relations Journal*, 38, No. 2 (1982), p. 19 and p. 33.

[7] David E. Clavier, "Public Relations Education in Schools of Journalism," *ACA Bulletin*, 39 (1982), pp. 25-56.

[8] Walker, p. 52.

[9] Frank B. Kalupa and T. Harrell Allen, "Future Directions in Public Relations Education," *Public Relations Review*, 8, No. 2 (1982) p. 37.

[10] James S. Measell, "Public Relations and Speech Communication: Partners in the 80's," *ACA Bulletin*, 39 (1982), pp. 35-38.

[11] Kenneth Owler Smith, "Report of the 1981 Commission on Public Relations Education," *Public Relations Review*, 8, No. 2 (1982), pp. 61-70.

[12] Robert K. Tiemens, "The Battle for Broadcast Curriculum," *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, 39, No. 3 (1975), p. 186.

[13] Harold Niven, "Fourteenth Survey of Colleges and Universities Offering Courses in Broadcasting," *Journal of Broadcasting*, 19, No. 4 (1975), pp. 453-4[illegible].

[14] Tiemens, p. 186.

[15] Measell, p. 36; and, Frank B. Kalupa, and J. Carroll Bateman, "Accrediting Public Relations Education," *Public Relations Review*, 6, No. 1, (1980), p. 19.

[16] Measell, p. 36.

[17] Kalupa and Allen.

[18] The Commission on Public Relations Education, "A Design for Public Relations Education," Foundation for Public Relations Research, 1975, p. 7.

[19] The Commission of Public Relations, p. 6.

[20] Measell, pp. 35-36.

[21] Bert E. Bradley, "Sharing a Public Relations Program with a Department of Journalism," *ACA Bulletin*, 39 (1982) pp. 27-29.

[22] Judith S. Trent and Jimmie D. Trent, "Public Relations Education: An Opportunity for Speech Communication," *Communication Education*, 25, No. 4 (1976), p. 294.

[23] Scott M. Cutlip and Allen H. Center, *Effective Public Relations* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1978), p. 16; Edward L. Bernays, *Public Relations* (Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952), p. 3; Lawrence W. Nolte, *Fundamentals of Public Relations: Professional Guidelines, Concepts and Integrations* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1974), p. 1; John E. Marston, *Modern Public Relations* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979), p. 3; Doug Newsome and Alan Scott, *This is PR*, 5th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1978), pp. 2-8; Raymond Simon, *Public Relations: Concepts and Practices*, 2nd ed. (Columbus, OH: Grid, 1980), pp. 5-13.

[24] Bradley, p. 27.

[33] Dyer, p. 33; and, Walker, p. 60.

[34] Cutlip and Center, p. 15.

[35] Bradley, p. 28.

[36] Bradley, p. 28.

[37] "The Good and Bad in Education, " *Public Relations Journal*, 38, No. 2 (1982), p. 20.

[38] Measell, p. 37.

[39] Keith Brooks, ed. *The Communicative Arts and Sciences of Speech* (Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1967), pp. 4-5.

[40] Tiemens, pp. 188-189.

[41] Walker, p. 53.

(36) No. 3 1984

Integrating Oral Communication Skills Across The Curriculum, K-6

Pamela J. Cooper
Northwestern University
Philip A. Gray
Northern Illinois University

IN addition to students' deficiencies in reading writing, analytical, and historical skills, it turns out that many of them have also lost their ability to speak well; and since this skill cannot easily be measured, its loss has gone unremarked . . .

Remarkable, the ill state of the spoken language is rarely mentioned in commentaries about the crisis in literacy and basic skills . . .

It is time that we recognize that the much vaunted "return to basics" must include attention to the spoken as well as the written language. Once we acknowledge the crisis in speech, we shall be able to talk about it and come up with a course of action to combat it. It will be none too soon. (Banner, 1979)

In 1979, with the passage of Public Law 95-561, which established a new Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Federal government declared the importance of oral communication by including it as the fourth basic skill. The law's pupose is:

to assist Federal, State, and local educational agencies to coordinate the utilization of all available resources for elementary and secondary education to improve instruction so that all children are able to master the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and effective communication, both written and oral. (Section 201)

With the passage of Public Law 95-561, school systems throughout the nation began to consider ways in which oral communication skills could be incorporated into already "full" curricula. The task was not easy. Few teachers felt prepared to teach oral communication. And most felt they already had more that needed to be taught than could be included in a school day. Yet, when confronted with the "evidence," most felt that oral communication was important and necessary.

In order for schools to develop and integrate an effective oral communication curriculum, five steps are necessary:

1. Convince teachers/administrators/parents that oral communication skills are important
2. Instruct teachers/administrators/parents as to the nature of oral communication
3. Present a model for oral communication curriculum building
4. Implement the curriculum
5. Assess the curriculum

The purpose of this article is to discuss each of these five steps briefly.

The Importance of Oral Communication Skills

Perhaps one of the most convincing reasons for helping children develop their oral communication skills is that oral language is the primary medium for learning. It occurs throughout the school day in every subject matter area.

As Birkley (1976) notes:

> The age when a child enters school is still within the cognitive stage which requires knowing things by talking about them. Therefore, for a school to quiet the child's tongue, is to quiet the child's mind. (p. 623)

However, just because a child enters school able to talk, she/he is not ncessarily a competent communicator. And, certainly, as the child grows and matures her/his communication needs change and require a greater level of competency. If children are to become and continue to be competent communicators, they need opportunities to learn through focused instruction, practice, and feedback.

Oral communication skills are truly life skills. Speech is our predominant mode of communication. It is the means by which we define ourselves as human, by which we develop a sense of self and our relationships to others, and by which we solve our problems. Furthermore, specific training in talking and listening skill development is critical to our social, economic, and political well being. An examination of just a few of the studies on the relationship between basic skills and functioning effectively in society clearly supports the observation by Banner (1979) that "once we acknowledge the crisis in speech, we shall be able to talk about it and come up with a course of action to combat it." The need for our schools to turn attention to oral communication instruction is a theme running throughout a number of recent reports, including, for example, Malcom G. Scully, "General Education Called a Disaster Area by Carnegie Officials; Need for Revival Seen," *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (April 18,

1981); Lawrence Biemiller, "10-Year Program to Improve the Preparedness of High School Students Set by College Board," *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (September 30, 1981); *Basic Skills in the U. S. WorkForce*, Center for Public Resources (New York, 1983); Mortimer J. Adler, *The Paideia Proposal* (MacMillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1982); Becker and Ekdon, "That Forgotten Basic Skill: Oral Communication," Association for Communication Administration *Bulletin* (Vol. 33, August 1980, pp. 12-25); Vincent DiSalvo, "A Summary of Current Research Identifying Communication Skills in Various Organizational Contexts," *Communication Education* (Vol. 29, July 1980, pp. 283-290); Galassi and Galassi, "Preparing Individuals for Job Interviews: Suggestions from more than 60 years of Research," *Personnel Guidance Journal* (December 1978, pp. 188-192); Page and Perelman, *Basic Skills and Employment: An Employer Survey* (University of Wisconsin, 1980); and Frank S. Endicott, *The Endicott Report: Trends in the Employment of College and University Graduates in Business and Industry, 1980.*

When teachers are presented with the facts that oral communication is the primary mode of learning (and thus, enhancing oral communication skills can enhance learning) and is a life skill, they are convinced that oral communication training can accomplish two important goals: (1) aid student learning in other basic skills areas, and (2) prepare students for life long learning.

Convincing teachers of the importance of oral communication is not difficult; convincing them they can teach it is a different matter. Teachers often feel they have more to teach in a day than time permits. However, when teachers are exposed to the ways to integrate oral communication skills into already existing curriculum and understand the values of doing so — both to their students and themselves — they are willing to try.

The Nature of Oral Communication

Prior to helping students increase their communication skills, teachers must understand the nature of the oral communication process. A complete explanation of oral communication is beyond the scope of this paper, however. (For a more complete discussion of oral communication and the training of all teachers in dealing with communication in the classroom, see Cooper, 1984.) In terms of building an appropriate curriculum two concepts do need explanation at this point — communication function and communication competence.

Communication Function. All communication is purposive. That is, we communicate in order to accomplish a variety of goals, and understanding the purposes for our communications is necessary if we are to be effective. Utilizing the work of Halliday (1973) and Wells (1973), the National Project on Speech Communication Competencies (Allen and Brown, 1976) has identified five categories of communication function:

1. Controlling. These are communication acts in which the participants' dominant purpose is to control behavior: for example, commanding, offering, suggesting, permitting, threatening, warning, prohibiting, refusing, persuading, arguing, rejecting, and justifying.
2. Informing. These are communication acts in which the participants'

purpose is to offer or seek information: for example, stating information, questioning, answering, naming, pointing out an object, demonstrating, explaining, and acknowledging.

3. Feeling. These are communication acts which express and respond to feelings and attitudes, such as, exclaiming, expressing a state or attitude, taunting, commiserating, and expressing sentiment.
4. Imagining. These are communication acts which cast the participants in imaginary situations and include creative behaviors such as role playing, fantasizing, speculating, dramatizing, theorizing, and story telling.
5. Ritualizing. These are communication acts which serve primarily to maintain social relationships and to facilitate social interaction, such as greeting, taking leave, participating in verbal games, reciting taking turns in conversations, participating in culturally appropriate speech modes (for example teasing, punning, praying, playing the dozens), and demonstrating culturally appropriate amenities.

Although these five functions of communication are presented as discrete categories, communication in "real life" is not as clearly discrete. An utterance may serve a variety of functions. For example, a Presidential news conference is presumed to function as an informing process. Nevertheless, such communications also serve controlling and ritualizing purposes. It should be remembered also that we both send and receive messages — we talk and listen. Young children, as well as adults, engage in all five functions with varying degrees of effectiveness. A very young child, for example, may attempt to control by pleading "I want it!" (a toy, brand of cereal, et al). As that child learns to use communication more competently, she/he may learn to shift the focus of the the action by stating to a parent "Don't you want me to be happy?" Our instructional task is to help students become more proficient in the appropriate utilization of oral communications for each of the five functions.

Communication Competence. (material adapted from Barbara S. Wood, **Development of Functional Communication Competencies**. "Communication competence" refers to a person's knowledge of how to use both verbal and nonverbal language in a variety of communication situations. Communication competence involves four sets of skill development:

1. Repertoire of Experiences. To be flexible communicators, children must be capable of performing a wide range of communication acts required by their social environment. As children grow in experience, they acquire a number of communication strategies which may be used to accomplish these various speech acts. An important function of speech communication instruction is to provide experiences which expand the repertoire of speech communication strategies from which children may select when dealing with everyday situations which are important to them.
2. Selecting strategies. Taking into consideration the relevant charac-

teristics of the communication context — participants, topic, task, and setting — children select from their repertoire of strategies those which they perceive to be the most appropriate given the specific situation at a given moment in time. Implicit in the selection process are criteria which help children decide how to act in communication situations. A second important function of speech communication instruction is to provide an opportunity for children to identify and sharpen the criteria they use in choosing communication strategies.

3. Implementing strategies. Having determined a strategy to use in a given communication context, children must be willing to carry into action that strategy. Through implementation, children experience themselves using verbal and nonverbal behaviors designed to accomplish a given intent. A third important function of speech communication instruction is to enable children to experience themselves in dynamic interaction as they give verbal and nonverbal expression to their strategic choices.
4. Evaluating performances. Having performed a communication act, children must evaluate their communication behavior in terms of its appropriateness to the child and to others. As one grows in competence, one makes informed judgments about one's own speech communication act and ultimately contribute to the repertoire of experiences which provide the broad base for future communication encounters. A final important function of speech communication instruction is to provide opportunities for children to sharpen their critical awareness of self and others in moments of communication interaction.

Curriculum Design Model

The model for oral communication curriculum design proposed in this article consists of three components: Communication Contexts, Communication Functions, and Communication Skills. The latter two components have already been discussed. A brief explanation of communication contexts is necessary prior to illustrating how a curriculum "cube" (Figure 1) can be utilized to generate an oral communication curriculum.

During the course of a single day, students communicate in a variety of contexts or situations. One way to categorize these contexts is by size of the audience and/or by the extent to which space and distance characterize the audience. Five contexts based on size/distance seem to be appropriate categories for utilization in curriculum building:

1. Intrapersonal communication involves talking to one's self — blaming, praising, rationalizing, evaluating, etc.
2. Dyadic communication involves two persons. Much of our communication occurs in a one-on-one context.
3. Group communication involves people who are in face-to-face contact and are psychologically "aware" of each other as members of a

communicating unit — peer groups, families, classroom groups, etc. In terms of size such groups are usually considered to be from 3 to 7 (perhaps up to a dozen) persons.

4. Public communication involves larger groups (audiences) where the role of the speaker and listener are relatively fixed. The most familiar public communication context for students in the class lecture.
5. Mass (or mediated) communication involves situations in which the speaker and listeners are separated physically and technology (media) is necessary to bring the speaker's message to the listener — radio, television, film, audio recordings, etc.

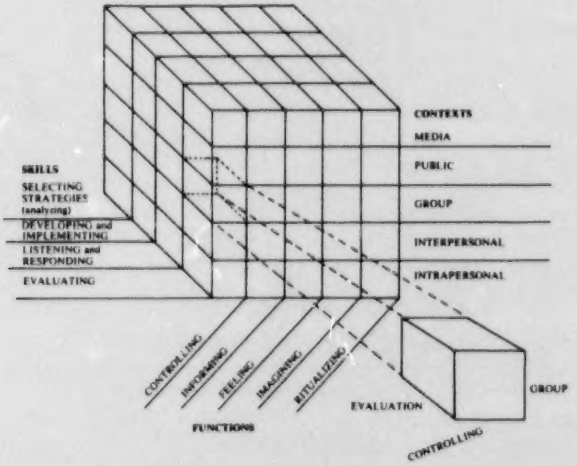
Two major characteristics of context further differentiate mass communication from the other contexts. Specifically, the first four occur in those situations in which the speaker in interacting directly with the listener and can observe relatively immediate feedback. Mass communication, on the other hand, is characterized by the "intrusion" of technology and relatively delayed feedback. Mass, or mediated, communication, then, is subject to much more filtering and distortion than is the case in interpersonal forms of communication.

The following cube model (adapted, in part, from Klein, 1979) provides a perspective through which communication curricula and activities can be developed which are appropriate for:

1. Students of all ability levels, K-6,
2. Involving students in learning basic oral communication skills, and
3. Providing students with a repertoire of experiences in a variety of contexts, for varying purposes.

Figure 1

Oral Communication Model



Each of the portions or "cells" of the cube represent a number of possible communication activities or a unit which can be developed. The cell extended from the model illustrates how the teacher might develop an activity. This cell represents a communication activity in which the learner is working with others in a small group context with the major communication function being to control. The skills being emphasized focus on evaluating communication. Note that all communication skill components are involved in every communication context and for every communication function. However, in order to assist students to develop competencies, we need to focus specifically on each skill.

From the cell we can now develop an appropriate instructional activity. For example,

SUBJECT AREA:	Social Studies
GRADE:	Six
CONTEXT:	Small Group
SKILL:	Evaluating
FUNCTION:	Controlling
OBJECTIVE:	To enable students to discover ways in which others try to control us and to evaluate the effectiveness of that control
MATERIALS:	Magazine advertisements for each group in class (3 or 4 ads per group)
TASK:	Each group is to discuss the advertisements according to the persuasive technique being used (for example, expert testimony, bandwagon effect, flattery, etc.)
PROCEDURE:	Discuss persuasive techniques used in advertising. Divide students into small groups (4-5 each). Distribute 3-4 advertisements to each group. Explain the task. Have each group appoint a spokesperson. After each group completes the task, have each spokesperson "report" to the class. During reports encourage students to question the reporter or to comment upon the group's "decision" about each ad.

Using the model to generate activities, teachers can be sure that they are teaching all functions and competencies in all contexts rather than focusing on a few. Note also that oral communication skill development can be incorporated into all subject matter areas. Role playing, children's literature, symposiums, interviews, debates, films, puppetry, storytelling, creative dramatics, reading aloud can all be used to integrate oral communication skills into all areas of the curriculum. (For information on each of the listed techniques see Blankenship and Stelzer, 1979; Brown, 1977; Clinkscale, 1979; Cowe, 1976; G. Fox, 1976-77; S. Fox, 1976; Kolcyznski & Capelka, 1977; F. May, 1980; J. May, 1979; Quisenberry & Willis, 1975; Vukelich, 1976; Wagner, 1979).

Implementing the Curriculum

Developing communication skills requires that students be introduced to the skill, that their attention be focused on learning the skill, that they periodically review the skill, and that they work to maintain the skill. These requirements, of course, are most appropriately met by focusing instruction, providing students with feedback, and providing students with the opportunities to continually practice the skill. Although a single teacher may be able to assist students develop some communication competencies, the importance of oral communication instruction suggests that skill development be structured into the curriculum in such a way as to involve teachers at all grade levels and in a variety of subject areas in the instruction. In order to develop and implement such a curriculum, a team of teachers needs to develop and integrated program for all grade levels in the school. A variety of curriculum packages is available to assist in developing appropriate K-12 curricula. (A useful package, for example, can be obtained from the Illinois State Board of Education. This package includes *Basic Oral Communication Skills: A Program Sequence for Illinois, Assessing Oral Communication Skills, Basic Listening Skills*, and *Parents as Teachers: Helping Your Child to Become a Better Communicator*. Write to Program Planning and Development, Illinois State Board of Education, 100 North First Street, Springfield, Illinois 62777).

Perhaps the most important element in implementing the program is the need to develop a communication environment in your classroom. Most children have been accustomed to sitting quietly while the teacher talks to them. They will not automatically begin talking just because the teacher has decided to integrate oral communication instruction into the curriculum. Nor are they likely to become more active listeners. Children must be encouraged to communicate and to have their attention focused on the process.

Teachers can do several things to encourage the development of a good classroom communication environment. They can, for example, focus on children's ideas — ask for clarification, elaboration, justification. They can develop questioning strategies which challenge students to analyze, evaluate, and synthesize rather than simply "parroting back" knowledge gained through reading. Children can be encouraged to question classmates and teachers can learn to wait after asking a question so that children have time to consider their responses. (For specific ways to aid teachers in accomplishing such goals, see Edelsky, 1978; Fisher, 1974; Schwartz, 1975; Sheldon, 1977).

Perhaps the most important means to encourage a communication environment is the building of trust. Children need to know that their ideas are valued and will not be ridiculed (see Bushman, 1976; K. Wood, 1976). Cooper and Galvin (1982) suggest several teacher competencies which will help to create a supportive communication classroom climate:

1. Positive self-concept. Effective teachers generally have a positive self-image. This leads to a flexibility which allows teachers to foster pupil autonomy and accept pupil ideas.
2. Self-disclosure. Sharing information about ourselves that others are unlikely to know can help build a climate of trust and enhance stu-

dent/teacher relationships in the classroom. The more we communicate about ourselves, the freer students will feel to communicate about themselves. This is not a suggestion to disclose intimate details of your life, but to let your students know you as a person and that you are trying to know them in the same way.

3. Descriptiveness. Feedback which is based on observable behavior is more effective in building a supportive communication climate than is feedback based on personality. Being descriptive suggests that we communicate as concretely and specifically as we can based on observations rather than on inferences.
4. Owning feelings. Each of us communicates from our own perceptions which may or may not match the perceptions of another. Communicating thoughts and feelings as belonging to us avoids the problem of implying that we are always right. Owning our feelings can do much to promote supportiveness because we do not blame others for our feelings.
5. Empathy. Empathy means the ability to "walk a mile" in our students' shoes. We perceive ideas, situations, and feelings as they are perceived by our students. We don't necessarily agree with such feelings or ideas, but we do try to understand them from the student's perspective. This ability encourages students to feel comfortable communicating with us.
6. Listening. We can learn much about our students if we listen to them. We acquire knowledge, develop language, increase our own communication abilities, and increase our understanding of ourselves and others through listening. Listening, then, is an important skill to develop and improve as a teacher as well as a student.
7. Response styles. Research (see Johnson, 1972) indicates that most of us respond to others in evaluative or interpretative ways. We tend to judge others or tell them what they mean or feel. Such response styles are likely to decrease students' desires to communicate. Other response styles, such as being supportive, understanding, probing, will increase the desire to communicate.
8. Behavioral flexibility. Behavioral flexibility permits teachers to use such communication skills as self-disclosure, empathy, response styles, etc., appropriately. Learning such skills and using them in isolation may seem simple. Selecting the most appropriate strategy based on a student's needs at a particular moment requires a greater commitment to improve the communication environment in the classroom by the teacher.

Assessing the Curriculum

Perhaps one of the most important points to remember in terms of assessing the oral communication curriculum is that assessment cannot be done in the same way that it is done for the other three basic skills, reading, writing, and computation. Assessment of oral communication skills must take into account

the purposes and psychological characteristics of the speaker and listener, the topic being discussed, and the context in which the communication occurs.

Several assessment options are, however, available. Standardized tests (see Larson, et al., 1978) to assess oral communication skills may be somewhat costly and some require extensive training. Other techniques can be designed or are already available to teachers for use within the existing curriculum (for examples of some of these techniques see *Assessing Oral Communication Skills*, Illinois State Board of Education).

In order to assess the activity described earlier in this article which was based on the cube model, we might use a checklist of small group behaviors such as the one presented in Figure 2. We would move from group to group observing each child, or we might allow peer evaluation. Certainly, the small group context should not be assessed only once, but several times throughout the year.

Figure 2

Assessing Small Group Discussion

✓ = Satisfactory

✓+ = Above Average

✓− = Needs Work

		Comments
1. Speaks loudly and clearly enough to be heard easily		
2. Introduces new ideas		
3. Uses reasoning and evidence to support ideas		
4. Asks questions to get information		
5. Summarizes when needed		
6. Tries to include others in the discussion		
7. Disagrees tactfully		
8. Listens to and follows the flow of conversation		

Student's Name _____

Conclusion

In this article we have described, briefly, five sequential steps to help schools develop an oral communication curriculum and to integrate that curriculum across the K-6 grade levels. Accepting the notion that oral communication skills are important, understanding the nature of oral communication, developing a model for curriculum building, implementing that curriculum, and assessing the curriculum are the means by which we can improve the quality of instruction in oral communications in our schools. The task is not necessarily an easy one. It does require a commitment from the faculty, the administration, and the parents to improve the curriculum. However, helping children develop basic oral communication skills used throughout life is a task well worth the time and energy required.

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(36) No. 3 1984

Theatre in the Television Production Course

Glenn D. Novak
West Georgia College

TELEVISION production courses at the college level are full of opportunities for students to learn new concepts and skills. The vast majority of students who enroll in the basic course have had no prior experience in television and are eager to get the kind of hands-on experience needed to qualify them for entry-level positions in the video industry. Broadcasting students enrolled in an advanced course in television production have usually overcome any fears of working with electronic equipment and wish to use their new skills to produce original programming. Where motivation is high and equipment is functioning properly, both the beginning and advanced TV production courses can be enjoyable to teach.

In general, the objective of the basic course is to equip the student with the technical skills necessary to operate a television switcher, camera, film chain, audio board, and character generator. In addition to these mechanical skills, the student is expected to be able to write, produce, direct, and (possibly) edit certain types of short programs for television. The nature of these programs varies from instructor to instructor but very frequently consists of the following staples: commercial or public service announcement, demonstration, interview, mini-feature, and newscast. Each assignment can be clearly spelled out and

geared toward the development of a specialized production skill. Behavioral objectives for each project can be explained easily and evaluation can proceed fairly.

The advanced course in television production has as its primary objective the refinement of those technical skills obtained in the basic course. This refinement is achieved most frequently by a combination of three elements: a smaller class size, allowing each student more time in key production positions; longer assignments that more closely approximate a standard television program; and greater creative freedom permitted the student, enabling him or her to write and direct television scripts that have something to say to an intended audience. The purpose of this article is to discuss a television production assignment that, in an abbreviated form, might be introduced late in the basic course to create interest in the full potential of television. Its most appropriate place, however, is in the advanced course as a tool for helping the student refine those previously-acquired production skills.

Drama as Interdisciplinary Departure

An interesting departure from or addition to the standard fare of production assignments is a television drama. When carefully chosen and adequately rehearsed, the play produced for television becomes a catalyst that changes the whole television production experience from a technological laboratory into an exciting showplace of creativity and entertainment. The student actors learn television production while the production crew learns theatre.

Such an interdisciplinary departure is not new. Webb (1984) has successfully used the television studio as a means of teaching writing to college students. She states that "students are experienced television audiences; and they can use that experience to become the narrator in video's triad of narrator, event, and audience" (p. 12). In the same way that the television production experience facilitates the acquisition of writing skills, so too can it force the student into a new awareness of the possibilities and limitations of drama. The student director/producer remains the narrator, but the focus shifts from a direct narrative style to a visual interpretation of the playwright's dramatic message.

The advantages of incorporating a short teleplay into the video production course are several. First, most students are more familiar with televised drama than they are with televised newscasts or documentaries. As a result of the popularity of soaps and sitcoms, students can easily compare their finished (or unfinished) products to the professional daytime or prime time drama found on commercial TV. Second, the assignment gives the more advanced students a chance to actually produce a teleplay they may have written for a related course in their broadcasting curriculum, and cast their friends into suitable roles. Third, students minoring in theatre can combine the aesthetics of one discipline with the technology of another to learn more about the interdependencies of both. Students totally unfamiliar with theatre learn quickly (if not thoroughly) about cutting a play, acting, rehearsing, blocking, etc., and frequently get their appetites whetted enough to take some theatre courses.

In a very real sense, the television drama assignment provides an opportu-

nity for both teacher and student to go beyond the mechanics of equipment operation frequently associated with the television production course. The writing and taping of short commercials force students to be persuasive. The production of a newscast requires interviewing skills and organizational abilities. But a television drama permits an exploration of ideas and a wedding of visuals and language that can open up new horizons to students. Verriour (1984) explains this potential by saying "the conventions of the theatre permit teachers using drama not only to employ existing language conventions but also to contravene those conventions in order to frame dramatic situations which challenge the students to become more reflective" (p. 125). The more creative students, writing their own teleplays for the assignment, frequently do violate conventions in their efforts to capture and hold viewers' attention, and the results can be refreshing.

Students involved in the production of television drama gain special insights into the plays as literature, providing a rewarding residual benefit from what many would consider a rather technical course. As opposed to merely reading the play in an English course, students participate in it, making the characters and story come alive, while at the same time using production skills they have previously learned. Bell-Metereau (1983) states that "a major goal of many teachers is to get students involved in the literature, to have students actually visualize and vicariously experience what they read" (p. 497). Vicarious participation in short excerpts of dramatic literature is a major component of the graded teleplay project.

Problems and Pitfalls

Trying to coordinate the planning and production of a dozen television dramas during the final weeks of a course is no instructor's dream come true. Several problems present themselves that can be a genuine concern to everyone involved in the course.

Time limits must be imposed. Students may wish to produce an entire play or scene, but cuttings of about 15 minutes generally must suffice. The benefits to the cast and crew are the same, and more plays can be produced during what is usually limited studio time. Very short cuttings are especially necessary if the assignment is used in the basic course where enrollment tends to be larger and technical set-up time longer.

Cutting a fine play or key scene down to a producible length without damaging its dramatic impact can be a frustrating problem for even the most experienced individual events coach. For the uninitiated, the problem can be of paralyzing proportions. With patience and assistance, however, this problem can be overcome, and a sense of editorial accomplishment may even result. The student producer of a ten-minute excerpt from Paddy Chayefsky's *Marty* must write intelligent, coherent copy to precede the scene in order to place it into context. Thus, the production course might go beyond television *and* theatre to a kind of continuity writing, a broadcast writing style that is clear, terse, yet interesting. In the words of Webb (1984), "Video talk is rarely spontaneous. Video talk, particularly narration or monologue, is spoken writing. It is planned, re-

hearsed, reconsidered, and revised" (p. 13).

Another pitfall in television drama centers around the drama chosen. Students with little or no background in the television classics of Rod Serling, Reginald Rose, Paddy Chayefsky, or others are tempted to select inane Monty Python episodes to produce or write light-hearted spoofs of present-day college life. Frequently, both choices end up as rather static dialogues devoid of conflict and resembling neither good drama nor good television. Dramatic excerpts need not be professionally-written to be useful for the assignment, but the plot should be clear, develop quickly, and possess conflict, and the characters should be at least somewhat engaging.

The habit of reading news stories from a script or teleprompter represents a probable origin of yet another pitfall to effective television drama production. Barbara Walters might use cue cards, but Willy Loman absolutely cannot. Actors in a teleplay must play to each other, not to the camera lens. As a result, they must memorize their lines and deliver them exactly as they appear on the director's script. Unrehearsed or poorly prepared talent make everyone's job miserable, and make the entire television performance anything but convincing.

Lessons to be Learned

The only way to justify the inclusion of a graded production assignment involving television drama, an area of programming so different from news, documentary, or features, is to realize that this project makes students do things that the others do not. As a directing experience, television drama represents a series of unique challenges. The student learns to watch the monitors and to cut from one camera to another *motivationally* rather than mechanically. Frequently, the best shot is of the non-speaking actor reacting to another actor's lines, a very fundamental departure from the newscast or demonstration wherein the speaker is almost always shown on screen. The director also learns the value of the close-up and the power it has to reveal character and emotion. Unlike live theatre, with a proscenium through which the audience views the entire action, the television screen is the viewer's personal window looking in on a piece of life. The television director, like the film director, controls that window, isolating a ball-point pen, a cup of drugged coffee, or an actor's mouth in an intimate telephone conversation. Attention is focused by the shot selected by the television director. Opportunities for creative manipulation are without parallel.

The rest of the production crew learn new lessons, too. Television drama usually requires the careful use of boom microphones operated always just out of camera range. Unlike other traditional assignments which use clip-on or table microphones, drama requires more pre-production planning on the part of both the audio board operator and the production assistants on the studio floor.

The production of a teleplay, even a very short cutting, allows the television student to go beyond the conventional lighting designs discussed in the standard texts by Wurtzel (1983) and Zettl (1984). The emphasis that drama frequently places upon reality or a deliberate departure from reality challenges the lighting designer to experiment with special, unconventional lighting effects in what

Lucier (1981) calls "a collaboration among the human eye, the video camera, and the television screen" (p. 30). Newscasts and commercials require proper illumination; television drama demands a creativity in lighting that will establish locale, create mood, and achieve dramatic emphasis.

Aspiring actors learn an important lesson from participating in television drama. It usually takes only one playback of a rehearsed scene to make evident the fact that all movement and gesture need to be toned down. The raising of an eyebrow or a subtle glance can be effectively magnified by the camera lens. Broad, sweeping actions and quick movements about the studio floor frequently produce results that are ludicrous or not captured at all in the medium close-up so frequently used.

Calendar of Events

Although a short cutting from a teleplay might be used as one assignment late in the basic course, the familiarity with equipment that such a project requires would usually place it in the syllabus of the advanced course. In such a course, students already know how the equipment operates and are less intimidated by it. They are less enthralled by diagonal wipes and the mysteries of the character generator and more able to concentrate on the content and impact of a television program. As the second graded project in the course, the 15-minute teleplay can be produced with less instructor supervision and with a greater concern for the use of television to bring out the dramatic action of the selected scene. A suggested calendar of events for the course follows:

First third of course

(1) Review of equipment operation from basic course
(2) Directing techniques for the live telecast: backtiming, director's commands, coping with on-air emergencies
Project #1: Graded, student-directed, 15-minute newscasts using videotaped inserts, chromakey technique, and commercials on film

Second third of course

(1) The television director as creative force
(2) The teleplay: cutting the play, casting, rehearsal, acting, directing, special lighting and sound concerns
Project #2: Graded, studio-produced, student-directed television dramas (about 15 minutes)

Last third of course

(1) Television outside the studio
(2) Electronic news gathering, field production, investigative reporting, videotape editing
Project #3: Graded, student-written and produced 15-minute video documentaries (This final project is assigned at the same time as the drama, but is accomplished outside of class and lab time by students using portable video equipment. Edited projects are viewed by class members during final week of course).

Conclusion

The use of a short dramatic scene as an assignment in an advanced television production course has some academic merit. It should be remembered, however, that the focus of the course is on the acquisition and refinement of technical production skills, not on acting, play cutting, or videotaped oral interpretation. Although today's college student is too young to remember the days of live television drama, lessons that were learned by young professional television directors of the 1950's are important lessons for the directors of tomorrow to be learning. Production skills acquired in college TV lab experiences in general, and in the diverse and exciting area of television drama in particular, can prepare students for the ever-increasing variety of jobs in today's television industry.

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(36) No. 3 1984

The Projected Outline: A Means To Extemporaneous Delivery

Robert R. Quick
LaSalle-Peru Township
High School

ONE of the most difficult tasks for the teacher of speech may well be that of developing extemporaneous speakers. In striving to obtain the desired extemp delivery, teachers frequently vacillate between a NO NOTES ALLOWED or an OUTLINE ONLY addendum to an assignment. No matter, the results are frequently similar.

Every teacher has seen manuscripts created in the guise of outlines by the process of using the first sentence of a paragraph as a main idea and each sentence thereafter as a subordinate idea. Thus the desired extemporaneous delivery is shunned by the student for the security of a manuscript.

When notes are not permitted for an assignment, the memorized delivery, fraught with plagiarism, blockings, and boredom appears in the classroom. Thus battle lines are drawn against the instructor championing an extemp delivery by students opting for manuscript readings and memorized recitations.

If a student is to develop an extemporaneous delivery, a thorough knowledge of organization and outlining is necessary. The student must then feel secure in using an outline while addressing an audience. Obviously the first requisite for the student is to come to an understanding of the selected topic and its resource material. When the student grasps the subject and can reduce it to an outline, the probability that an extemporaneously delivered address will result is enhanced.

A simple means exists to develop better student outlines and accompanying discourses. Student outlines to be used in delivery should be written on transparent sheets and projected to a point behind the audience by means of an overhead projector. Materials to be inserted into the presentation as direct quotation may be held by the speaker.

What happens when the simple technique of the projected outline is used? Better organizational patterns and speech habits develop. The practice of projecting an outline presents the following advantages:

1. Students do outline their presentations.
2. Students develop more precise outlines.
3. Students do use their outlines during presentations.
4. Students become more mobile, no longer having to confine themselves to the lectern.
5. Students become more direct with their audience through eye contact.
6. Students develop extemporaneous deliveries.
7. Students in the audience have an opportunity to see the speaker's outline during a post delivery discussion of the subject or presentation.
8. Students are given an opportunity to see the relationship between organization and delivery.

Teachers accustomed to traditional forms of instruction may naturally be skeptical of the projected outline. In reality, the disadvantages of the technique are few.

The first concern of the instructor would be to fear a classroom disruption due to the apparent distracting presence of the projector in the audience. However, students seated in the immediate area of the projector do not react to its presence. The primary focus of attention is still the speaker.

The second concern of the teacher would be to fear a disruptive effect caused by the projected outline itself. To be sure, students will sometimes turn around to view the outline as a preview of the address. Other students may sit sidesaddle in order to give some attention to the outline during the speech. In either case, such actions can enhance the educational process.

The opportunity to view the outline of a speaker is available to the audience. Through the projected outline, the receiver has the opportunity to see the relationship of short phrases or words to the varied sentence patterns of the address. Thus the student audience may be more easily instructed in matters of language, style, and delivery. In effect, the teacher has more instructional resources to use when the projected outline is employed.

The teacher will probably find that the disadvantages of the projected outline are matters of housekeeping. Transparent sheets must be cleaned for reuse. Overlays and markers must be abundant. A second projector must be in the classroom for projecting visual aids to the audience.

As a teaching technique for extemporaneous speaking, the projected outline has shown itself to be most useful in developing better outlines and extemporaneous deliveries. It proves to the students that they can succeed without the need to memorize materials or to employ large quantities of resource material during delivery.

(36) No. 3 1984

Interpersonal Communication in the Broadcast Curriculum: A Missing Link?

Frank E. Parcells
Eastern Illinois University

BROADCASTING curricula in higher education generally developed and emerged through departments of Speech.[1] There remains some quandary today as to which academic unit in the area of communication should be responsible for the curriculum and instruction of broadcasting. However, independent radio and television departments are becoming increasingly predominant.[2] This philosophical evolution suggests a complementary relationship between interpersonal and mass communication extending beyond the boundaries of study to practice in the "real" world.[3] Could it be that some fundamental part of communication is now being neglected in the study of broadcasting due to the restructuring of academic specialization and reorienting of departmental priorities? The purpose of this article is to suggest a need, establish a philosophical base, and present an approach to the instruction of interpersonal communication in the broadcast curriculum.

Specifying the Importance of Interpersonal Skills for Broadcast Employees

Midwest station managers were surveyed to identify entry-level skills and long-term success characteristics for radio employees in news, announcing, and sales careers.[4] Of 697 managers surveyed, 375 responded for a return rate of 54%. The managers indicated an awareness of the importance of well-developed and stable interpersonal communication skills as a significant factor for employee career success (longevity, stability, and advancement).

This survey used both a descriptive-statistical and a phenomenologically-oriented approach with open-ended and closed-end questions to ascertain specific characteristics of employee success.[5] There was agreement and consistency between the data from the two approaches regarding interpersonal skills. The interpersonal characteristics most highly stressed by station managers were responsibility, initiative, dedication, dependability, effective community involvement, willingness to accept constructive criticism, and cooperation with co-workers. In addition, some managers actually listed the phrase "interpersonal communication skills" as a desirable quality for prospective employees.

Respondents suggested that it was the responsibility of those training broadcasters to encourage these competencies as part of radio and television curriculum and instruction. The managers emphasized the necessity of the learning environment reflecting the commercial broadcast industry. Thus, station managers believe that interpersonal communication skills should be encouraged and developed in broadcasting students as part of the radio and television curriculum through situations and experiences resembling the broadcast industry.

Tackling Responsibility: Mass Communication, Social Change, and Education

Head defines mass communication as a process having at least five elements: (1) relatively large audiences; (2) fairly undifferentiated audience composition; (3) some form of message reproduction; (4) rapid distribution and delivery; and, (5) low cost to the consumer.[6] Mass media are part of the process of mass communication,[7] and include radio, television, film, newspapers, magazines, and other similar forms. Siebert, Peterson, and Schramm outline the social responsibility theory of the press as emphasizing the obligation of the media to society for certain essential functions of mass communication, primarily the dissemination of information.[8]

The realization that media play a critical role in the lives of the U.S. population seems rather obvious. Most people have been exposed to and influenced by the process of mass communication; many of them since birth.[9] Freeman summarizes the media effects and affects as extensive, asserting that "mass communication is a powerful force in socialization and transmission of culture."[10] The acceleration of technological development and the pervasive influence of mass communication rapidly alters the structure of American society.

This modifies the relationship of society to the individual, reorienting culture and custom. For the individual to cope more effectively with constant change, it is important to expand our concept of communication and education.

Mass communication is a process which always involves the sending of some message, thereby informing the public. Just as the media are tools in the process of mass communication, mass communication is an agent of social change in the process of education.[11] This involves a great deal of responsibility; therefore, the importance of a broadcaster's social responsibility is clearly recognized. However, that form of responsibility is to society as a whole and some dimensions of social responsibility are neglected. Here the issue focuses on specific parts of society: the broadcaster's responsibility to employer, peers, significant others, and self. These levels of social responsibility may be a source of conflicting demands or desires which, in turn, create stress resulting in a dilemma for the broadcaster. The ability to cope with this responsibility dichotomy (personal and public) has much to do with the degree of effectiveness of the broadcaster's functioning and performance in career and non-career contexts. Epistemic communication education emerges as a means of interfacing personal and public responsibility in a relationship of mass to interpersonal communication.

Episteme: A New Paradigm of Communication Education

Orr calls for a new paradigm of epistemic communication education,[12] based in Perry's scheme of intellectual development for the college years: movement from Dualism, through Multiplicity, toward Relativism and Commitment. Dualism is meaning divided into two areas, i.e., good versus bad. In this case, knowledge is a quantitative function.[13] Diversity of opinion and values, recognized as "legitimate," where correct answers are now known is Multiplicity, i.e., "Everyone has a right to their opinion; none can be called wrong."[14] During this period, it is possible to escape, retreat, or postpone movement to another stage for more than a year.[15] Relativism is diversity of opinion, values, and judgment derived from evidence, logic, and patterns allowing for analysis and comparison. Knowledge is a qualitative function dependent upon contexts.[16] Commitment is the process of affirmation or choice of decisions made in an awareness of Relativism.[17] This notion of episteme, pedagogically practiced through an experiential model of instruction,[18] is articulated by Parcells and Cardona as education: "the continuous process of learning, including stages of development, where meaning is created through relational and integrative experience generating knowledge and understanding as reality."[19]

Berlo equates the learning and communication processes as almost identical and interchangeable.[20] This suggests the importance of communication for learning and education as a system of development through relationships involving transactions.[21] A transactional approach to education is an experiential process-orientation involving interdependency of elements, the unpredictability of the process results, and down playing intentional control of the process by a participant.[22]

Historical and Philosophical Foundations of Interpersonal Communication

These dimensions of education and communication involve learning through our experience with others and other things in the world.[23] Even Head's definition of mass communication contains elements recognizing human transaction as an inevitable result of the mass communication process.[24] Littlejohn places the previous discussion into a perspective which describes interpersonal communication: multi-perspectival studies of how humans relate have been a major focus of research throughout history. Experience, art, scholarship, and science are the dimensions Littlejohn outlines as elements of an ongoing search to know or what Bois calls episteme, the science-art of knowing.[25] Together these four dimensions, as interrelated and interdependent elements of knowledge, constitute a foundation of interpersonal communication. This foundation is accomplished through a historical mergence of many traditions into the speech communication discipline and accounts, in part, for the universality in the application of interpersonal communication.[26]

The Scope of Communication: Defining Interpersonal Communication

The transactional approach to communication presupposes that simultaneous interaction (shared experience) exists through an interchange of verbal and/or nonverbal communication between oneself and another or another thing.[27] Relationships are goal-oriented. Desires develop which emerge as personal goals. It is impossible for human beings not to develop goals. Goals are acquired only through relationships.[28] There is a mutual interdependence present in all relationships.

Communication is defined as an inevitable and irreversible, continuous process of creating and sharing meaning through experience that includes an interchange of information in some signs or symbol form.[29] Interpersonal communication is one context of communication.[30] It may be conceptualized as rather personal; occurring in a dyadic encounter on a level of relative intimacy.[31] Interpersonal communication is concerned with relationships between oneself and others in the world.[32]

Shifting Attitudes Characterizing Employee Competence in Broadcasting

The importance of educating broadcast students, beyond mere production career essentials, was expressed by Bluem in 1960 as he challenged broadcast education to move away from the preparation of student technicians toward an integrative approach to learning.

> Unless students are prepared to consider the relationships between what they are doing and the effect of it upon their own civilization, they are unable to reflect upon their role as communicators. The present hapless state of the industry for which we prepare our students may

be attributed to the presence of too many doers and too few thinkers."

Apparently the attitude of broadcast managers has changed during the more than two decades since Bluem's commentary on "the state of the art." Olson supports the notion of intellectual development in a collegiate setting, coupled with media skills, as a way of integrating knowledge for radio and television students. He views the primary purpose of broadcast education as teaching students to think critically.[14]

This broadcast industry management attitude shift indicates a new emphasis on interpersonal communication in employee hiring and career success. Coping with personal and public responsibility requires more attention than mere learning through individual experience. Interpersonal communication competence is best achieved through guided practical skill development coupled with theoretical understanding.

Applying Interpersonal Communication to the Broadcast Curriculum

A fifteen week course plan is offered as an instructional outline to provide examples of the application of interpersonal communication to the broadcast curriculum. This plan is divided into units which include content summaries, activities, and assignments.

Course Description. This course acquaints students with notions of interpersonal communication through experiences allowing them to practice these concepts in both broadcast and non-broadcast situations. A laboratory approach employs general semantics, sociometry, and role playing as methods to develop a position of responsibility in relationship to mass and interpersonal communication. Improvement of interpersonal communication skills is facilitated by dyadic interviewing and small group discussion activities emphasizing perception, language, and listening competence.

Course Requirements. The course requirements include: (1) keeping a record of all activities and assignments as well as personal experience and exercises in a journal; (2) completion of all laboratory assignments, readings, written papers, and final examination;[15] (3) participation in class activities and discussions; and, (4) application of interpersonal communication skills in everyday functioning with others.

Introduction and Orientation (Week 1). Historical foundations of interpersonal communication, its functions of knowing in a highly technical world of change, and its relevance to broadcast and non-broadcast situations are summarized. An explanation of course organization and structure is appropriate here. (Activity) Dyadic or group "get-acquainted" activities and/or small group discussions of interpersonal communication foundations may be used at this point.

Communication Processes (Week 2). An overview of the relationship of mass to interpersonal communication follows an explanation of the communication process through various models of communication. (Activity) Students form groups and role play vignettes appropriate to various communication

models. (Assignment) Each student is given a specific vignette to analyze based on the communication process.

Communication in Small Groups (Week 3). Students are introduced to sociometry as it relates to different communities. Priorities in groups and decision-making which effect and affect one's interpersonal interaction are summarized. The role of problem solving in discussion is explicated. (Activity) Class members work in small group decision-making by solving problems constructed by the instructor. (Assignment) Students prepare a social atom revealing individual preferences in group associations.[14]

Communication Transaction in the Encounter (Week 4). Dimensions of the encounter are stressed and students are introduced to the concept of social responsibility. (Activity) Groups engage in the scripting of personal and functional encounters. (Assignment) Students are given 9 weeks to read two books on responsibility in communication[15] and a personal encounter is recalled and scripted. Communication behaviors are identified in the scripted encounter.

Listening (Weeks 5 and 6). Listening concepts are presented and active listening is applied to cooperative efforts with peers and supervisors in broadcast situations as well as personal relationships. (Activity) In small groups and dyads, students interact and observe listening habits. The class responds to the criterion statement. "Whom in this class would I choose to work with on a difficult news assignment for a broadcast station?" Students respond in three categories: (1) those selected, (2) those not selected, and (3) neutrals. A summary of the responses is prepared for the class by the instructor. (Assignment) Students are to interview a radio or television staff member and attempt to discover that broadcaster's view of the importance of listening on the job. Each student will report the findings to the class.

Perception (Weeks 7 and 8). A handout on perception is distributed and discussed in small groups, while activities are undertaken relating perceptual selectivity to interpersonal communication. (Activity) Students describe images of various drawings and share interpretations with peers; indicate agreement or disagreement with a listing of statements and share perceptions with peers; and, begin reports of broadcast listening interviews. (Assignment) Class members are asked to recall a functional encounter, script the experience, identify communication behaviors, and apply interpersonal communication concepts to the encounter.

Interviewing (Week 8). An explanation of interviewing in both personal and functional contexts is provided and students receive a handout summarizing interviewing procedures. (Activity) Students role play various interview situations. (Assignment) Students are asked to prepare a description of a broadcast employment interview and complete a short analysis of the situation.

Language (Weeks 9 and 10). Major concepts of general semantics are explained and applied to interpersonal communication. The role of language via media intervention into the transactional process of communication is explicated. (Activity) Students role play various interview situations in groups and analyze the experience by application of general semantics' principles. (Assignment) Broadcast station managers are invited to class and participate in mock interviews with the students. Class members observe one another's interviews

for later analysis.

Creativity and Spontaneity in Everyday Communication (Week 11). A brief summary of Moreno's notions of creativity and spontaneity are presented and applied to interpersonal communication.[18] (Acvitity) Students select partners, form groups, and role play peer encounters in broadcast situations as assigned by the instructor. Each situation allows for maximum self-direction and encourages spontaneity and creativity. Immediate processing of the experience via interpersonal communication concepts provides for understanding and personal application.

Sociometrics' Interpreted (Week 12). The instructor's summary of the first sociometric responses (sociomatrix) is presented to the class and the significance interpreted for interpersonal relations. (Activity) The class is asked to respond to the criterion statement, "Whom in this class would I choose to work with on the staff of a broadcast station?" Student responses include: (1) choices, (2) non-choices, and (3) neutrals, as well as (4) perceptions of other students', choices, non-choices, and neutrals. Class members discuss the results of the last sociomatrix in small groups.

Nonverbal Messages and Conflict Resolution (Week 13). The importance of nonverbal communication is presented as impactful in a highly verbal world. Intra- and inter- personal aspects of conflict resolution are explored. (Assignment) Students are to log silences and their varying significance over several days. Journals are collected. The second sociomatrix is distributed, explained, and students discuss the results in small groups.

Interpersonal Communication Skills and Responsibility (Weeks 14 and 15). A summary of the major concepts covered in the course suggests essential interpersonal skills as competencies in relationships in broadcast and non-broadcast contexts. Some boundaries of broadcaster personal and public responsibility are explored. (Activity) Students identify significant issues of responsibility occurring in the relationship of interpersonal to mass communication. These issues are identified as communication dilemmas in broadcasting and situations are scripted from them. The instructor selects various communication dilemma scripts; small groups of students are formed; and, role playing of these broadcast situations begins. Following each role playing event, the situation is processed in terms of social responsibility and effective or ineffective interpersonal communication.

A New Emphasis for Broadcast Training: Epistemic-Experiential Education

Interpersonal communication, using epistemic-experiential education (including general semantics, sociometry, and role playing) is a methodology for an open systems approach to learning that integrates knowledge and understanding.[19] Through sequential development, students move from a static orientation of absolutes (Dualism), through multiplistic uncertainty, toward relational-extensional functioning (Relativism) to multi-situational, analogical capability and Commitment.[40] Such transformation, based on laboratory practice in and out of broadcast contexts, results in increased awareness and a new

many-dimensioned perspective of productive thinking. The student achieves a "proper" preparation as an individual ready for extremely efficient interpersonal functioning and performance. Graduates are prepared to cope effectively in career and non-career situations and are conscious of the need for flexibility and adaptability toward social change.

ENDNOTES

[1] See Sydney W. Head and Leo A. Martin, "Broadcasting and Higher Education: A New Era," *Journal of Broadcasting*, 1 (1956/57), pp. 39-45; Sherman Lawton, "The Principles of Radio Speaking," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 16 (1930), pp. 255-277; Donald W. Riley, "The Place for Radio in the Speech Curriculum Today," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 24 (1938), pp. 622-627; and, Harold Weiss, "Impiementing a Radio Course," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 32 (1946), pp. 335-339.

[2] See Melvin Allen "Radio Announcing: A New Speech Technique," *Southern Speech Journal*, 4 (1938), pp. 32-35; Robert J. Greene, *Broadcasting: Does It Belong in the Department of Speech? Traditional Concepts in Speech and Broadcasting*, 1973 (ERIC ED 085 795); Milan D. Meeske, "Teaching Radio-Television in A Department of Communication," *Educational Broadcasting Review*, 6 (1972), pp. 219-223; Harold F. Niven, "Colleges and Universities Offering Coursework in Radio and Television," *Journal of Broadcasting*, (1958-1975; Annual Survey Publications); Peter B. Orlik, "Teaching Broadcast Speech," *Speech and Drama*, 23 (1974), pp. 16-19; Riley, pp. 622-627; Ross Scanlan, "Television and Departments of Speech," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 30 (1944), pp. 140-143; Leslie Smith, "Education for Broadcasting: 1929-1963," *Journal of Broadcasting*, 8 (1964), pp. 383-398; and, Robert K. Tiemens, "The Battle for the Broadcast Curriculum," *Western Journal of Speech Communication*, 39 (1975), pp. 184-190.

[3] Frank E. Parcells, *Midwest Radio Survey: Management Identification of Vocational Needs and Perceptions of Entry-Level Skills and Long-Term Success Characteristics*, 1982 (ERIC, in press).

[4] Parcells.

[5] Frank E. Parcells, "Integrating Research Paradigms: Conducting Appropriate and Useful Communication Inquiry," Submitted for publication, 1984. Copies available from the author.

[6] Sydney W. Head, *Broadcasting in America*, 3rd ed. (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1976), p. 81.

[7] George Gerbner, "Mass Media and Human Communication Theory," in *Human Communication Theory: Original Essays*, ed. Frank E.X. Dance (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967), p. 44.

[8] Frederick S. Siebert, Theodore Peterson, and Wilbur Schram, *Four Theories of the Press* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1962), pp. 73-103.

[9] Ninety-seven percent of American homes have one or more TV sets, 401.6 million radios operate in this country today, and daily newspapers circulate almost 62 million copies a day. See Robert D. Murphy, *Mass Communication and Human Interaction* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1977), pp. 315-316. Children under the age of five spend an average of 23.5 hours per week watching TV, while adults view an average of 44 hours per week. See Harry F. Waters, "What TV does to Kids," *Newsweek*, 21 Feb. 1977, p. 63.

[10] Douglas N. Freeman, "Teaching Mass Communication: Instruction Regarding The Social Influence of the Media," *Communication Education*, 27 (1978), p. 2.

[11] See Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Change in Human Systems," in *The Planning of Change*, 2nd ed., eds. Warren G. Bennis, et al. (New York: Holt,

Rinehart, and Winston, 1976), pp. 22-45. Chin and Benne review three strategies for effecting change in human systems. Two involve some type of persuasion to achieve change through education, while the other uses outright coercion through the mass media. However, the first two approaches are to be considered more ethical and socially responsible.

[12] C. Jack Orr, "Communication, Relativism, and Student Development," *Communication Education*, 27 (1978), pp. 84-98.

[13] See William G. Perry, Jr., *Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years: A Scheme* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1970), pp. 59-71.

[14] See Perry, pp. 72-108.

[15] See Perry, pp. 177-197.

[16] See Perry, pp. 109-152.

[17] See Perry, pp. 153-176.

[18] Greg Drurian, "Toward a Theory of Experiential Learning," *The Journal of Nontraditional Studies*, 4 (1979), pp. 94-102.

[19] Frank E. Parcelss and Ivan Cardona, "Innovating Education Through Communication: An Integrative-Evaluative Goal Theory," Submitted for publication, 1984, p. 4. Copies available from the authors.

[20] David K. Berlo, *The Process of Communication* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1960), pp. 99-102.

[21] The concept of transaction is elaborated through Dewey's notion of aesthetic experience. See John Dewey, *Art as Experience* (New York: Capricorn/Putnam, 1958). See also Stephen W. Littlejohn, *Theories of Human Communication* (Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1978), pp. 248-249; and Dennis R. Smith and L. Keith Williamson, *Interpersonal Communication* (Dubuque, IA: Brown, 1977), pp. 31-32.

[22] Donald K. Darnell, "Some 'Basics' To Get Back To: A Transactional Perspective on Teaching-Learning," *Communication Education*, 27 (1978), p. 227.

[23] See John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: Collier, 1938).

[24] Head, *Broadcasting in America*, p. 81.

[25] See J. Samuel Bois, *Epistemics: The Science-Art of Innovating* (San Francisco: International Society for General Semantics, 1972), pp. vi-xvi; and, Littlejohn, pp. 4-5.

[26] Smith and Williamson, pp. 2-26.

[27] Parcells and Cardona, p. 6.

[28] For example Margaret A. Boden, *Purposive Explanation in Psychology* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1972); Charlotte Buhler and Fred Masarik, eds., *The Course of Human Life* (New York: Springer, 1968); and, Joseph Veroff and Joanne B. Veroff, *Social Incentives* (New York: Academic Press, 1980).

[29] Parcells and Cardona, p. 2.

[30] Jean M. Civikly, ed., *Contexts of Communication* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1981).

[31] Joseph A. DeVito, *The Interpersonal Communication Book*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1980), p. 527. See also Rolf von Eckartsberg, "Encounter as a Basic Unit of Social Interaction," *Humanatas*, 1 (1965), pp. 1-15.

[32] DeVito, p. 527.

[13] William A. Bluem, "In Defense of the Harvards," *Journal of Broadcasting*, 4 (1959/60), pp. 14-15.

[14] Thomas O. Olson, "Broadcast Education Need Re-emphasis on Liberal Arts," *Feedback*, 18 (1976), pp. 1-4.

[15] Possible textbooks for this course include Gary Gumpert and Robert Cathcart, eds., *Inter/Media: Interpersonal Communication in a Media World*, 2nd ed. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1982); and, Gail E. Myers and Michelle Tolela Myers, *The Dynamics of Human Communication: A Laboratory Approach*, 3rd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1980).

[16] Jacob L. Moreno, *Sociometry, Experiential Method, and The Science of Society* (Beacon, NY: Beacon House, 1951), pp. 57-69.

[17] Books emphasizing responsibility in communication contexts are an important element in this course. Examples of appropriate books for this purpose include Richard L. Johannesen, *Ethics in Human Communication*, 2nd ed. (Columbus, OH: Merrill/Waveland Press, 1981); and, William L. Rivers, Wilbur Schramm, and Clifford G. Christians, *Responsibility in Mass Communication*, 3rd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1980).

[18] Jacob L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive? Foundations of Sociometry, Group Psychotherapy, and Sociodrama* (Beacon, NY: Beacon House, 1953), pp. 39-48.

[19] See Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity: An Introduction to Non-Aristotelian Systems and General Semantics*, 2nd ed. (Lakeville, CT: International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, 1958); and, Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?*

[20] Elwood Murray and James E. Perdue, "From Atom to Beethoven to You: A General Semantics Curriculum for a Space Age," *General Semantics Bulletin*, 24/25 (1957), pp. 59-68.

(36) No. 3 1984

Theory Follows Practice: A Reversal of the Norm in Teaching Small Group Communication

Robert Gorg
Spoon River College

WHEN instructing the different units in the basic speech course, the commonly accepted procedure is to first present students with the theory or content of the unit and to follow with practice of the theory just discussed.

In almost all cases this seems the logical and sensible thing to do. For example, it would be ludicrous to ask students to give a persuasive speech before exposure to persuasion theory. But there is one unit of the basic course where this very procedure has proven to be a most effective teaching strategy. The small group unit and use of videotaping of a small group session *before* the student is exposed to any small group theory provides the framework for just such an approach. For this particular unit, practice followed by theory becomes the model. It is the purpose of this paper to describe the teaching strategy which utilizes this model.

Teaching Strategy

In any basic speech course, the first unit covered is typically communication theory in which the instructor describes the overall theory of communication, introduces the variables of the communication process, creates a model for communication interaction and defines

or gives an overview of the various types of communication interaction, i.e. Interpersonal, Nonverbal, etc. I begin the course in the same manner. The communication model that I present is the six variable process model first described by David Berlo which delineates the Source, Message, Channel, Receiver, Feedback, and Noise in a dynamic, continuous process. The model is drawn on the chalkboard in a very basic, cryptic manner.

Following this, a brief definition is given of the areas of communication that will be covered in the course. Following each definition, the area of communication discussed is plugged into the model to illustrate how the variables function in each area. All of this is done in a most general and superficial manner. The intention here is to merely give students an exposure to each of the areas and something from which to work.

The communication model assignment is then given. (see Appendix A) The students are told that they will be randomly divided into four groups and randomly assigned one of the areas of communication to study. They are told that their primary task is to bring the model of communication presented in class to life by creating a real life communication situation reflecting the area assigned to their group. The group is assigned the pertinent readings from the text which correspond to their area. They are told that their model should contain real people, really communicating. Their group is to be a teaching group, giving the rest of the class a solid understanding of their area of communication.

As can be seen in Appendix A, the directions of the assignment are left purposely vague and unstructured so as to itensify the problem that the group must solve as well as to guarantee vigorous communication interaction and the formation of roles within the group. The students are given their presentation date, told that they will have three in-class meetings but will probably need to meet outside the class, divided into groups, given their area to investigate, assigned reading and given the rest of the class to get acquainted and begin work on their projects.

At the end of the class I announce that at the next class meeting each group will meet in a separate location. These locations have been previously cleared with the AV department for videotaping of the session. At no point are the students informed about the use of the videotape at the next group meeting.

At the beginning of the videotaping session, I will quickly move from group to group. Typically, the students will be surprised and apprehensive about the presence of the camera and will ask — loudly — the reason for its use to which I'll vaguely reply that it will somehow be used later in the semester, and will not be seen by anyone but them. In general I encourage them to forget the cameras presence and stress the importance and urgency of getting the job done. Surprisingly, most groups will eventually operate as they normally would. During the remainder of the session I will move from group to group spending just a few minutes at each, merely offering feedback, encouragement or direction to the work they are doing.

The remaining in-class sessions are held in the regular classroom. Any questions about the videotaping session are handled in the same vague manner as previously described. The project continues through the group presentations, grades are given, a test is administered, and the unit is concluded.

The next unit is, of course, small groups. The fact that each member of the class has just been involved in a small group experience is stressed and referred to throughout the unit. It is at this time that I inform the students that the videotape made in the last unit will be utilized here. Typically reassurances need to be made that no one other than the students personally involved will be allowed to view the tape. The students are asked to connect the information being received to their own experiences in the group. They are told that at the conclusion of the unit they will be given the assignment to view the videotape made of their group and to evaluate the groups' and their own performance in terms of the theory discussed in class.

The theoretical content of the unit stresses the steps of problem solving; the decision making process; the creation of norms and roles within a group; the value of communication interaction; the value of conflict; styles, types and value of leadership in small groups; and the output variables of productivity, consensus and membership satisfaction. At the conclusion of these theoretical lectures, the students are given a format for their evaluation of the videotape (see Appendix B).

Conclusions

This approach, theory follows practice, has several advantages in teaching small group communiction. The primary advantage is that the theory of small group interaction gets strong reinforcement. Invariably, as the students evaluate the videotape, they see the theoretical concepts discussed in action. Even though they were not aware of it when participating in their groups, when they evaluate the tape, they see roles forming. They see leadership qualities in evidence. They see the presence or absence of conflict and the results. They see the amount of communication interaction present and its effects. In summary, they learn the theory by seeing themselves as examples of it in action.

Another benefit of this approach is that the students often learn quite a bit about themselves. Students will sometimes come to think that they have leadership qualities when they had never previously perceived themselves in that light. They will sometimes view negative role traits which they were unaware of before this experience. Sometimes, students will see themselves in a more favorable light after viewing the positive role traits exhibited during their group.

In conclusion, the teaching strategy which reverses the traditional theory into practice model has proven to be an effective and exciting learning experience for both students and instructor. While by no means do I encourage the use of the practice followed by theory model in all cases, in this particular teaching strategy it is of value.

APPENDIX A

Communication Model Assignment

In this assignment, you are to work in a problem solving work group in which your task is to create two communication models that deal with real life situations. You will work in groups of 4-6 students. You will be assigned the

area of Speech Communication (i.e. Interpersonal Communication, Nonverbal Communication, Public Communication, Intrapersonal) that your models should illustrate. In one model, the communication should be "successful". In the other model, "unsuccessful", because of a breakdown in one or more of the six variables of communciation discussed in class.

Work together as a group. *Do not rush into a decision*. Talk about your options. Explore the possibilities. Arrive at *group* decisions. Your model should be drawn on the transparencies that will be provided. Each group will then present their model to the class in a 10-15 minute presentation. Every member of the group should participate in this presentation, but the format of the presentation is your decision.

This assignment constitutes 15% of your grade. You will be given two grades, one a group grade, one an individual grade based on your individual presentation. These two will be averaged to arrive at a final grade for the project. Your group will be evaluated on (1) the understanding of the communication process that your model demonstrates, (2) the amount that your model can teach us about communication, (3) the originality demonstrated, and (4) the group process displayed. Individually you will be graded upon your individual presentation.

Be creative. Your model should be clear and simple, yet complete. Have fun!

APPENDIX B

Evaluation of Problem Solving Group

Please view the videotape which your group made during the unit on Communication Theory. Based on the theory received in class and through reading the text, please answer each of the following questions thoroughly and completely. Use additional sheets if necessary.

— All responses will be held confidential —

1. After viewing the entire tape, evaluate and discuss the groups' ability to follow the six problem solving steps discussed in class. Use concrete examples from the tape to back your contentions when possible.
2. Excluding yourself describe and discuss each members contribution, both positive and negative, to the group. What roles did they play?

   Member One _____(name)

   Member Two _____

   Member Three _____

   Member Four _____

   Member Five _____
3. Specifically and in detail evaluate your contribution to the group. What role did you play? What positive behaviors did you demon-

strate which added to the effectiveness of the group. What suggestions do you have for your own improvement?

4. Who was the leader of the group? What style of leadership did he/she demonstrate? Which of the leadership responsibilities did he/she perform? Evaluate in which ways the leader was an effective one. Evaluate in which ways the leader was not an effective one.
5. Discuss and evaluate how decisions within the group were reached.
6. Evaluate the group as a whole in terms of each of the eight variables which make up the small group stew. Pay special attention to the three output variables.

Input Variables		**Output Variables**
1. Norms		1. Productivity
2. Roles	Cohesion Occurs	2. Consensus
3. Communication	Interaction	3. Membership Satisfaction
4. Conflict		

(36) No. 3 1984

Section

3

Illinois Issues

(36) No. 3 1984

The Quality of Education in Illinois Elementary and Secondary Schools

Philip A. Gray
Past President — ISTA

SINCE 1982, significant and extensive public attention has focused upon the state of American education. Over 175 state task forces had been formed by the end of 1983, for example, to study a variety of educational reform issues.[1] On the national level dozens of private, legislative, and executive commissions have produced reports which recommend a number of changes in educational policies and practices in our schools.

Many of the reports produced thus far have identified language mastery as, perhaps, the single most important component of a quality eduation. Two reports (Boyer[2] and the Twentieth Century Fund[3]) list language literacy as the number-one priority. Others which assign high value to language mastery include the National Commission on Excellence in Education,[4] National Science Foundation,[5] Goodland,[6] and the Business-Higher Education Forum.[7]

Although some of these reports refer only to mastery of the English language in general terms, a substantial number have clearly suggested that language mastery refers specifically to those skills involved in reading, writing, speaking, and listening. For example, Public Law 95-561,[8] an amendment to Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, makes a number of proposals for the improvement of basic skills

to include computation, reading, writing, and *oral communication*. Boyer's report for the Carnegie Commission[9] asserts that speech is an essential part of a language mastery curriculum. Mortimer Adler's Paideia Proposal[10] outlines a three-part course of study for all students which focuses upon the development of intellectual skills by coaching and supervised practice in reading, writing, speaking, listening, calculating, problem solving, etc. The Twentieth Century Fund[11] calls for the federal government to clearly state that *the most important goal of public education is the development of literacy in the English language*. The National Science Board[12] insists that the basics include not only reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also *communication, problem-solving,* and *scientific literacy*. And, The College Board[13] clearly states that the broad intellectual skills essential for college study are reading, writing, speaking and listening, mathematics, and reasoning and study.

This focus of interest upon language mastery in all of its forms is characteristic, as well, of the recommendations of a variety of boards and commissions within the State of Illinois. The Illinois Board of Higher Education, for example, recommends in its study on admission requirements to Illinois public institutions that students be required to complete course work in English focusing upon *written* and *oral communication*.[14] And, in a preliminary draft, the Illinois State Board of Education Committee on Student Outcomes in Language Arts[15] states that the essential focus of instruction in language arts classes should be upon those skills associated with *reading, writing, speaking,* and *listening*.

The rationale by which so many reports and studies link improvement in the quality of education with improvement in both written and oral language instruction is simple. It is, perhaps, so simple that we tend to ignore the fact that we cannot be "human" if we cannot communicate. Speech is the means by which we define ourselves as human; by which we develop a sense of self and our relationships to others; and by which we link ourselves to our physical and cultural environments. Speech, therefore, is basic to *any* learning program. Speech is not only basic, it also enhances the quality of any kind of education by *triggering higher conceptualization*,[16] facilitating task performance,[17] and *promoting literacy*.[18]

Public education in the United States, and in fact throughout the world, has always had as its primary function the development of a literate citizenry. And the educational efforts of a nation are usually measured in terms of the percentage of the total population considered to be literate. We now know that *oracy is a necessary condition for literarcy*[19] and that there is a correlation between mastery of the printed word and continued instruction in mastery of the oral/aural language. Any attempt to improve the quality of education in the State of Illinois must begin with improvement in the quality of instruction in the basic skills upon which the rest of the instructional program is based.

ENDNOTES

[1] Education Commission of the States, *A Summary of Major Reports in Education*, (Denver: ECS Distribution Center, 1983) EG-84-3.

[3] Ernest L. Boyer, *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America* (New York: Harper & Row, 1983).

[4] Twentieth Century Fund, *Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy* (New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1983).

[5] National Commission on Excellence in Education, *A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1983) Stock #065-000-00177-2.

[6] National Science Board Commission on Precollege Education in Mathematics, Science and Technology, *Educating Americans for the 21st Century* (Washington, DC: National Science Foundation, 1983).

[7] John I. Goodland, *A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future* (St. Louis: McGraw-Hill, 1983).

[8] Business-Higher Education Forum, *America's Competitive Challenge: The Need for a National Response* (Washington, DC: Business-Higher Education Forum, 1983).

[9] Public Law 95-561, November 1, 1978, 92 Sts. 2001, *Federal Register, 44* (April 27, 1979), 25148-25153.

[10] Boyer.

[11] Mortimer Jerome Adler, *The Paideia Proposal* (New York: MacMillan, 1982).

[12] Twentieth Century Fund.

[13] National Science Board.

[14] College Entrance Examination Board, *Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and Be Able to Do* (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1983).

[15] Illinois Board of Higher Education, "A Follow-up Report of the Illinios Board of Education on Admission Requirements to Illinois Public Colleges and Universities," January 1984.

[16] Illinois State Board of Education Committee on Student Outcomes in Language Arts, "Preliminary Draft," January, 1984.

[17] Frank E. X. Dance, "A Speech Theory of Human Communication," in *Human Communication Theory*, ed. Frank E. X. Dance (New York: Harper, 1982), pp. 120-146.

[18] Robert M. Gagne and Ernest C. Smith, Jr., "A Study of Effects of Verbalization on Problem Solving," *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 63* (1962), pp. 12-18.

[19] R.R. Allen and Kenneth Brown, *Developing Communication Competence in Children* (Skokie: National Textbook Company, 1977).

[20] Allen and Brown; see also, Philip Gough, "One Second of Reading," *Visible Language 14* (1972), pp. 291-320; and, John Modaff and Robert Hopper, "Why Speech is 'Basic,' " *Communication Education, 33*, No. 1 (1984), pp. 37-42.